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Art. I.—THE MERCHANT,—HIS CHARACTER, POSITION, DUTIES.

The business of the Merchant is in a very high degree useful and honorable. He is the promoter of enterprise, the encourager of agriculture, the friend of peace. He diffuses from country to country, from continent to continent, the comforts of civilized life, the luxuries of art, the practical, substantial benefits of science and knowledge. He is the patron of industry in all its departments, and without his ceaseless energy, every pursuit, in the multitude of human employments, flags and decays. He builds a village into a mighty city—remove him, and tower and temple fall to the ground. It is his active enterprise that whitens the ocean with the sails of a thousand ships, and stems the currents of mighty rivers with the gigantic power of steam. In vain does the farmer labour in the finest climate, on the most fertile soil, if he is beyond the reach of that mercantile agency without which his products are worthless.

This character, so useful, so elevated, has not been hitherto properly appreciated by the world. It has been the fashion with mankind to bestow their admiration and eulogy on the destroyers, not the builders of national prosperity. The gigantic homicides who strike off a hundred thousand heads at a blow, or level in the dust cities, which have been the abodes of wealth and refinement for centuries—these have long been the prime favourites of our race, and poets and historians are yet busied with the exploits of Scipio, and Mummius, and Cæsar, and Zingis Kahn, whilst the Astors and Barings of other days are long since forgotten. The first place in rank and dignity even now in modern Europe is assigned to the descendants of those feudal lords

whose vocation was bloodshed and plunder—robbers who built their castles on the hill tops and preyed on the valley and plain, on the laborious farmer and enterprising merchant. But in Europe a change is going on. Men are learning to appreciate the pageantry of a privileged class at its real value, and to set a higher estimate on the useful and the good. And in our own country, where no false standard for personal worth has been established at any time, the claims of the upright, intelligent, liberal merchant to rank with the most elevated in the scale of social life is more and more acknowledged every day.

Is our reader seated at his breakfast table, before his comfortable fire of coal, let us invite him to a moment's reflection on the agency through which he derives his enjoyments. His cheerful parlour is curtained with silk or chintz from French or English looms, his carpet is from Scotland, his coal from Liverpool, the table before him is of wood from Honduras, his tea from China, his coffee from Mocha, or Brazil, or Java, his sugar from Cuba, his damask table cloth from Holland, his cups and saucers from Sevres, his knives from Sheffield, the Review or Magazine, that shares his attention with his tea cup, is just imported fresh from London or Edinburg, and whilst the pages of the Maga or Quarterly are yet damp from the press, the enterprise of the merchant has placed them on the reader's table. Can he fail then to honour the energy and industry which so contribute to his luxuries and comforts? Can he refuse to value most highly the vigour and skill without which his cotton, rice, flour, or grain would but encumber his fields and barns?

Such then being the high position of the merchant in character and usefulness, does it not deeply behove him earnestly to fulfil the duties of his noble calling? He must be the foe of violence, of dishonesty, of oppression every where. In every region of the globe to which his pursuits may lead—and where do they not carry him—he must be the enemy of fraud, of force, of tyranny, for where these prevail, commerce cannot flourish. He must be the fast friend then of liberty, of law, of order, of well protected industry. He must be ever, in heart, at war with whatever overturns or disturbs them, for they are essential to his success. In addition to the considerations by which all men are induced to preserve national and international peace, and which he is governed by in common with them, there is superadded for his guidance, the motive of personal interest. It is his vocation to be the peace maker and peace keeper of the world. Every new packet line established, every fresh field of enterprise opened, makes a new bond for the preservation of the world's repose. He must be the ready,

active promoter of the refinement, the general civilization of all nations, for these things create new wants which his skill must ever seek to supply. He must be the advocate of punctuality in business. His word must be equal to another man's bond. With him there must be no petty evasions, no shuffling pretences, no trivial excuses. He must be the stern, uncompromising exacter of strict, rigid, unbending integrity, and exhibit in his own conduct a perfect exemplar of honesty. It is his interest to do so. In the extent and multitude of his speculations he requires the agency of many subordinates. How shall he exact or expect honesty in them, if he himself be otherwise than a model of that integrity, without which he can carry on no extensive transactions. It may be regarded indeed as the duty of the merchant to furnish for the community the standard of honesty. His condemnation must be ever prompt, of every departure from the rule of rigid integrity, no matter how high or how honored the delinquent, or whether it be some humble individual or a sovereign State. He must ever be the stern foe of all repudiating debtors.

To the great body of American merchants it peculiarly belongs to use ceaseless efforts for the restoration of that high character among foreign nations, which the dishonesty of some of the United States has jeopardised for all. How can the commercial body of Philadelphia hold up their heads like honorable men in European markets, whilst the great and wealthy State to which they belong carries no longer her's in that position? What is peculiarly the duty of the Philadelphia merchant is the general duty of all American merchants, for in Europe they make no distinction between the debts of a State and of the United States.

It is the great duty of the merchant too to promote every department of industry, for every department of industry affords productions to trade. It devolves on him to aid every great enterprise, the end of which is to increase the results of skill and capital. Every sound project for the extension of rail roads throughout the country should be the objects of his peculiar care, and receive his active support. It ought to be a liberal support, not a mere selfish calculation of immediate profits or six month dividends, but a generous far seeing assistance, which looks to distant, indirect, and general benefits.

Let the merchant honour the virtue of industry in those whom he employs. Let him promote it by liberal and generous reward. It is no part of his character to exact hard labor, and vigilant persevering attention to his interests from his agents, and to dole out to them a niggardly reward, with a reluctant hand. He should be always ready to

assist, to advance, to promote with parental zeal every worthy subordinate. In every condition and class of the community to which he belongs, his eye should be ready to mark, and his voice to encourage, and his purse to aid the industrious and honest labourer and mechanic. Every impulse given to activity and vigour adds to the general fund of national prosperity, at the same time that it fosters the virtue of the individual assisted, and through him of the public at large.

It is not less the vocation of the merchant, and part and parcel of the noble and elevated part he is expected to perform, to be at all times foremost to dispense to every portion of the Republic the blessings of intellectual, moral, and religious teachings. How, otherwise, shall he worthily and fitly discharge the great duty of his calling—the preservation, the advancement of good order, peace, just subordination, and civil, political, and religious freedom. Let none be so ready as he to establish schools, to endow colleges, to build and support churches. To their honour be it said there is and has been no class of men more prompt, more liberal and munificent than the merchants of this and every country, in doing all these things. There are some exceptions it is true. There are men whose names disgrace the name of merchants—men whose sole aim is to amass an immense capital, and who sit down in the midst of their hoards with souls untouched by the elevated and generous feelings which ought to inspire them—men who apply their money to no liberal or useful purpose, but devote it to shaving notes, to making hard bargains out of the distresses of others, to add dollar to dollar without end or object.

For the promotion of the ends and aims, which we have briefly and very imperfectly adverted to as those which belong to the character and position of the merchant, there should be established everywhere societies of merchants, so regulated and governed as to animate and diffuse the genuine spirit and principles of their calling, to keep alive a vigorous and lofty tone of honour and honesty, to foster industry, to advance learning, to adorn and ennoble the pursuits to which their lives are devoted, and the country to which they belong. G.

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.—There is something delightful in the contemplation of such a character as our friend has ably drawn in the sheets above, to represent THE MERCHANT,—but where shall the man be found, where the community of such men? As God judges us, from an impartial and most anxious study of the mercantile classes, in a wide section of the union, particularly in our Southern and Western, we have discovered more to grieve and disappoint than to cheer. We want the spirit which “maketh alive;” we want the enterprise which is far-seeing and far-executing; we want the high purpose, the noble resolve, the liberal and comprehensive sentiment, which makes the merchant in the most

unlimited sense,—the man, the citizen, the patriot, the philanthropist, *the national benefactor*. The “high calling” of commerce brooks no needy, gainful and contracted vision—no *pauperism* every where else than in *wealth*, no *deification* of *legers* and *iron chests*, no *consecration* of *warehouses*, no *idolatry* of *dollars* and *cents* and *tenth fractions of a cent*! To alter a passage from Bolingbroke, which he applied to lawyers, “There have been *merchants* that were orators, philosophers, historians; there have been *Roscoe’s* and *Cosmo de Medicis’*. There will be none such any more, till in some better age true ambition prevails over avarice, and till men find leisure and encouragement to prepare [yes *prepare*] themselves for the exercise of this profession, by climbing up to the vantage ground, instead of grovelling all their lives below, in a mean but gainful application to all the little arts of chicanery.”

However, we have no disposition to press with severity upon any profession while yet it numbers many bright ornaments and exemplars. Our purpose is not to complain, but to urge a higher standard, and to provoke efforts from our merchant citizens in every respect worthy of them, and of our country. The apathy that has prevailed among us upon this subject is altogether unaccountable, but the results have been the most natural in the world. *The commercial spirit, in the true sense, has for many years, been dead at the South*. We wish to resuscitate it, and to vindicate for this great section of the Union those rights upon the high seas, which an extending FOREIGN COMMERCE will give, and that general prosperity which ever follows in its train. If we have not the class of men for movements such as these, let us aim to rear them up to be the actors, at least, in some other and more favored generation. To do this, we must diffuse correct and worthy views of the rights, duties, and responsibilities of the merchant citizen. There must, in fact, prevail an understanding of what a merchant citizen is:—

“Who gathers income in the narrow street,
Or, climbing, reaps it from the roughening sea—
His anchor Truth should fix—should fill his flowing sheet,
His weapon, helm and staff, the Truth should be.
Wrought out with lies, each rafter of thine house,
Black with the falsehood every thread thou wearest—
A subtle ruin, sudden overthrow,
For all thy household fortune thou preparest.

“Undimmed the man should through the trader shine,
And show the soul unlabel’d by his craft:
Slight duties may not lessen, but adorn,—
The cedar’s berries round the cedar’s shaft.
The pettiest act will lift the doer up,
The mightiest cast him swift and headlong down;
If one forget the spirit of his deeds,
The other wears it as a living crown.

“A grace, be sure, in all true duty dwells;
Humble or high, you always know it thus,
For beautiful in act, the foregone thought
Confirms its truth, though seeming ominous.
Pure hands and just may therefore well be laid
On duties daily, as the air we breathe;
And Heaven, amid the thorns of harshest trade,
The laurel of its gentlest love may wreath.”

Art. II.—CONTESTS FOR THE TRADE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

A contest has been going on between the North and South, not limited to slavery or no slavery—to abolition or no abolition, nor to the politics of either whigs or democrats, as such, but a contest for the wealth and commerce of the great valley of the Mississippi—a battle for no principle of government, no right of human freedom in the abstract; but a contest tendered by our Northern brethren, whether the growing commerce of the great West, shall be thrown upon New Orleans, or given to the Atlantic cities—which shall receive, store, sell and ship the immense products, of that great country, lying between the Appalachian and Rocky Mountains? Shall Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore do it, or shall our own New Orleans?

If this question was not intended to be solved by the contest of after years, why the vast expenditure of money in building rail roads, digging canals, &c.? for what purpose were these works projected? for what object so many millions spent in the construction, and so many millions yet to be spent in finishing, and constructing canals and rail roads, intended to connect with the West by way of the Lakes, and with the West by way of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers? The New York Canal, the first in the series of works, unites the waters of Lake Erie with the tide water of the Hudson. The Western Pennsylvania works unite the upper end of the Ohio river with Lake Erie, while Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois unite the same waters at four other places lower down; and the latter State, besides tapping the Ohio near its mouth, has a work in progress, for uniting the waters of the Lake with those of the Mississippi.

Previous to the undertaking of the New York works, the city of New York, in point of population was outranked by Philadelphia even so late as 1820. In 1825 the New York great Canal was finished; and New York city now doubles in point of population the city of Philadelphia. At the time New York took her position, in front of all the cities of the Union in point of population and commerce, the resources of the great West were but little known, and less felt. But the far seeing eye of her great statesman, the Hon. De Witt Clinton, then foresaw the future importance of connecting the commerce of the Valley of the Mississippi with the interests, and destinies of New York, at the earliest moment; reasoning correctly, that they who first received, would longest retain the commerce of the West. Although much ridiculed at the time for the projected canal, yet he made the bold and daring attempt, and the firmness of his character enabled him to succeed to the surprise of friends and enemies, in connecting

the harbors of Lake Erie with the Hudson, and forming a water communication with the far West and the city of New York. By an examination of the Auditor's Report of the value of landed or real property in the State of New York in 1825, with the valuation in 1845, only twenty years after, we find that the increase valuation is more than 100 per cent. over what it was then. The population, also, since 1820 has more than doubled itself.

The advantages developed by this improvement, set other States and other cities to work, for the purpose of securing to themselves, a portion of the growing commerce of the West, and through that medium, lay as it does here, the labor of the whole number of inhabitants of the Western States under contribution, to build up in like manner the fortunes of their respective States and cities, and to add the like results to the aggregate value of their property, as had been secured to New York. Massachusetts was aroused to push forward the fortunes of Boston by the construction of railways intersecting with the New York Canals and rail roads, and which have produced results already, almost magical, and opened a career for the future destinies of Boston, that cannot be otherwise than highly gratifying to her delighted population. Pennsylvania has also started forward into successful existence, works of a similar description, connecting, however, directly with the Ohio river; and a larger amount of capital is already invested by her, in canals and railways, than any other State in the Union; besides others in contemplation, which when completed, are destined to throw the wealth of untold millions into the lap of Philadelphia. Immediately adjoining her, is the State of Maryland, with her Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, and her Chesapeake and Ohio Rail Road, intended to connect directly with the Ohio river and draw through their channels the produce of the West, and to concentrate it upon the monumental city of Baltimore. Virginia, too, has been aroused, and by an act, passed by her Legislature, on the 2d February, 1846, a rail road is to be made from the city of Richmond, connecting with the Ohio river at or below the great Kenhawa. Giandotte, situated 170 miles above Cincinnati, will in all probability be selected as the point; as it is at that place the first considerable shoals present themselves in obstructing the navigation of the Ohio river above Louisville. By this route, the distance from Cincinnati to Richmond is only 570 miles, and but 700 to Norfolk. Railways are now completed from Richmond to Washington city, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and on to New York, and the whole distance to the latter city by this route is only 910 miles from Cincinnati, a distance that railway speed can overcome in 30 hours. The

New York and Erie Rail Road is now in progress of completion, and when finished, the distance from Dunkirk on Lake Erie to New York can be accomplished in 14 hours.

Next to these improvements, but not behind them in importance, we must add that western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois have completed and have in progress of completion, numerous canals connecting the waters of the Lakes with the Ohio river, and others intended to connect directly with the Mississippi river.

In the midst of this grand display of enterprise, money expended, talent and forecast exhibited by our northern brethren, to draw the commerce of the west to them, the question comes up, what have we of the State of Louisiana, and New-Orleans in particular, done to ensure this commerce to ourselves? The very question startles us with the answer we have to make. Had nature not done so much for us, or had we to encounter the same difficulties that they of the north have overcome, the history of past experience would tell us, that it never would have been accomplished in the space of time that *they* took to complete it. From some cause or other Southern States have never heretofore been leaders in enterprises or improvements of commercial importance. Possessing, as Louisiana does, the ownership of the Mississippi river, (and no other State does,) and with it natural advantages never equalled by any other State or city in the world—with the Mississippi as a great trunk, stretching its longest branch four thousand four hundred and ninety-one miles through the midst of the great valley, lying between the Appalachian and Rocky Mountains, with more than a thousand rivers pouring into it from either side, watering the finest portion of our globe, with a climate and soil unsurpassed in salubrity and fertility, an extent of country over one million two hundred thousand square miles, which fifty years ago was mostly a wilderness, now containing a population of ten millions of people, and increasing more rapidly than any other portion of our confederacy, but little exertion *was wanting*, but little exertion is *now wanting* to ensure to New-Orleans, and consequently the State of Louisiana, the untold millions of its commerce to be forever carried on through the mouths of the Mississippi.

Had a tithe of the exertion been made to retain it, that has distinguished the efforts of the north to draw it off, we should not now be called to look with astonishment at beholding one-half in bulk and value of western produce seeking a market at the northern Atlantic cities, where twenty years ago, not a dollar was sent through the channels now bearing it away from New-Orleans. It is true, that the

reputation of New-Orleans as an unhealthy city, may have served at the time, to stimulate those exertions. But that disadvantage no longer exists. By comparing the bills of mortality of the cities of Boston, New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, with New-Orleans for the last five years, yellow fever *and all*, New-Orleans is shown to be superior in point of health, in proportion to population,—that indeed, it is the healthiest city in the United States, Charleston alone excepted.

These matters stated, we come to the discussion of the question how far is the commerce of the west, in relation to New-Orleans, affected by those artificial inland means of transportation?

It appears from the “most reliable sources of information, that the present cost of transportation of a barrel of flour from Cincinnati to New-York, via the Ohio and Erie canal, Lake Erie and the New-York canal, is \$1,35. From the same place by way of the Ohio river and Pittsburg and the Pennsylvania works, \$1,40, and via New-Orleans, \$1,38; besides there is usually an allowance of some 10 or 12 cents to be made per barrel for *extra risk*, and for *soiling* the barrel at New-Orleans, which makes it cost, in fact, by this route, about \$1,50. (*See Hunt's Magazine*, Sept. 1848, p. 286.) In this, it is evident the writer is far too low in his estimate of the extra risk and soiling, for it is well known to every merchant conversant with the flour trade, that the soiling *alone* is a disadvantage of twenty-five to fifty cents per barrel. The average of this, then, would make the cost of transportation of a barrel of flour by way of New-Orleans, to New-York, \$1,75, being forty cents more than by the way of the Ohio canal, &c., to that city. But it appears by the following letter, the prices have been still more reduced, and we must reasonably conclude they will finally be reduced to as small a sum as will bring a barrel of flour to New-Orleans.

“Cincinnati, May 2d, 1846.

“Yesterday Messrs. James Wilson & Co., agents for Griffith's “Western line trained a quantity of flour from St. Louis to be forwarded to New York via Miami canal to the Lakes. This shipment “will be followed by others for the same destination. This is a new “feature in our canal business, as well as a new element of prosperity. “The charges on this flour will be nearly as follows:

“Freight from St. Louis per barrel,	20 cts.
“Cartage and Cincinnati charges,	08
“Freight thence to New York,	125

“Total charges per bbl. from St. Louis, . . . \$1.53

“Cheap enough in all conscience for carrying 1,775 miles. The

"charges on the Southern route would cost about \$1.40 per barrel, but "the danger of souring, the *damage* to packages in the transshipment at "New Orleans, &c., will be greater than the difference of freight." (See Hunt's Mag. Octo. 1846, pa. 355.)

This *soiling*, *damage* and *injury* in the transshipment of property at New Orleans is a crying evil, spread all over the South and West, and has already produced wonderful results, in connection with the low rate of charges in transporting property by way of these artificial routes to the Atlantic cities.

In the year 1835, the following description of property came from the State of Ohio, being then the *only* exporting State on these Lakes, and passed through Buffalo by way of the Erie canal to tide water, viz:

1835.		In 1845.		
Flour, bbls.,	86,233	Flour, bbls.,	717,466	Inc. over 800 per ct.
Wheat, bus.,	98,071	Wheat, bus.	1,354,990	" 1,300 "
Staves,	2,565,272	Staves,	88,296,431	near 4,000 "
Bbls. provisions,	6,562	Bbls. prov's,	68,000	" 1,000 "
Ashes, bbls.,	4,410	Ashes, bbls.,	34,602	" 800 "
Wool, lbs.,	149,911	Wool, lbs.,	2,957,761	" 2,000 "

If the statistics of the past year could have been obtained, the increase would have shown a much larger extension of business from the West, through these canals, &c., and the North.

In the year 1845, the receipts of flour at New Orleans were only 533,312 barrels, and that of the year before only 502,507, while wheat for the former years shows only 129,528 bus., and the latter 172,028, showing that the receipts at Buffalo were eight times as much one year, and twelve times as much the other, as New Orleans. In 1836 the whole receipt of flour at New Orleans was only 253,500, and of wheat 6,422 bushels. In staves the receipts at Buffalo were upwards of eighty-eight millions, while the past year at New Orleans they were only 5,679,000.

The Hon. Mr. Wentworth, member of Congress from Illinois, in a speech delivered the past session on the appropriation bill, uses the following language,

"The Lake commerce was more extensive than would be supposed from the very small number of Lake representatives on this floor. In the last five years there were built above Niagara falls 180 vessels, costing \$2,500,000; of these, 31 were steamboats and 4 propellers. In the whole Lake trade Mr. W. estimated 60 steamboats, 20 propel-

lers, 50 brigs, 270 schooners; making 400 in all, of 80 thousand tons, costing 4 millions. There are now building on the stocks between Chicago and Buffalo, 10 steamers, 12 propellers, and 12 sail vessels; 34 in all. There are 6,000 active seamen on the Lakes, and their commerce the past season has been all of \$125,000,000."

The receipts of flour at Buffalo, &c., during eleven months of the past commercial year amounted to 871,665 barrels, while that of New Orleans for the whole year amounted to only 837,985 barrels! Wheat for the same length of time reached at Buffalo 1,474,871 bushels; and for the whole year, the entire receipts at New Orleans were only a fraction over 800,000 bushels. The whole amount of corn that went forward from the West by way of the canals to New York in 1845, was only 26,716 bushels, and for the eleven months of the past year amounted to the enormous sum of 878,332 bushels, or an increase at the rate of 3,300 per cent. If the statistics, showing as they do a diversion of one-half in bulk and value of Western produce from New Orleans through those artificial channels where twenty years ago none went, what may we expect when all the works now in progress of completion shall have been finished, will be the tendency of the commerce of the great West, considering the dangers of our navigation, and the injuries property is now liable to, on reaching the port of New Orleans? A duty now lies before us—a solemn duty is to be performed by Louisiana to New Orleans, the pride and glory of the State—nay, indeed, of the whole South. To perform that duty understandingly and make it effectual, in rendering the natural advantages she possesses, subservient in placing her at the head not only of the commerce of the United States, but of the whole world, we must meet our Northern competitors upon their own ground, and with corresponding weapons. Where they offer one facility, we must offer a better, until the catalogue of improvements and advantages shall have been gone through with.

But it is evident from the facts and statistics herein exhibited, that the commerce of New-Orleans is now suffering: 1st. From injuries to which produce is liable after it reaches our warehouses. 2d. From expenses to be incurred in sending it forward from the West to New-Orleans, or by way of New-Orleans, when intended for shipment, greater than those expenses are by way of the artificial inland conveyances, to the cities of the north. 3d. In risks from our climate, and the want of those conveniences necessary at all times to protect goods from the weather the moment they come out of the hold of the vessel. 4th. Impediments in the navigation of the Mississippi river and *all* its tributaries, by which risks are increased and insurances advanced,

Under each appropriate head we shall briefly enumerate the evils complained of, and then suggest the remedy.

First. Injuries to which produce is liable after it reaches New-Orleans. Vessels bringing produce to New-Orleans may arrive in a rainy spell of weather, and between showers the cargoes are delivered on the wharf, and all, with very few articles excepted, are injured by the soiling of the packages in rolling them over the wet and muddy wharves. If flour, the injury is estimated at from twenty-five to fifty cents per barrel, and other produce in the same proportion. But if it is corn, wheat, rye, oats, salt, hemp, bagging, bale rope, &c., &c., the injury is much greater. The past year the injury to corn alone is estimated at two hundred thousand sacks, or its equivalent in value. But this property after it has been deposited on the wharf, may, in its transit to the warehouse, or in its transit from the warehouse back to the ship, when intended for shipment, receive heavy showers of rain upon it, and in either case the injury falls upon the owner, but is always charged, though unjustly, to a want of proper care on the part of the consignee, and through him, upon New-Orleans.

Second. The expenses attendant upon sending property through New-Orleans intended to go forward. It must be borne in mind, that three-fourths of the western produce received in New-Orleans is intended for shipment, either foreign or coastwise. To the injuries enumerated under the first head, to which this produce is subjected, and which the owner has to foot, is to be added the expense of double drayage,—that is, drayage from the steamboat to the warehouse, often a mile distant from where it is landed, and then drayage to the ship, when it is to go forward. To this must be added the expences incurred for cooperage, mending, &c., caused by the rough manner of carting, and the rapidity with which drays run over our rough and uneven pavements.

Third. The risks of our climate, and the absence of those conveniences necessary to protect property from any kind of weather the moment it leaves the hold of the vessel. Our merchants have gone to the expense of procuring tarpaulins for this purpose, and however well they may serve to protect produce or merchandize, in a gentle shower without wind, yet it is well known they are of but little avail when the rain is accompanied by hard wind, which is most usually the case. But the dampness from the wet and muddy wharves and levees, no tarpaulin can protect against; and in the case of all grains, hemp, &c., &c., the injury from damp is often disastrous.

Fourth. The impediments in navigation by reason of obstructions in

the Mississippi river and its tributaries, from snags, shoals and sand bars, can only be remedied by Congress, as most of them are beyond the jurisdiction of this State, but the others we can remedy ourselves.

The disadvantages that New-Orleans now labours under, and which are here briefly enumerated, are disadvantages that no other commercial city in the United States has to contend with. In Boston, New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, vessels come alongside the wharves on which the warehouses are built for the reception of the produce or merchandize. In New-York they have, since the great increase of business from the west to that city, gone to an enormous expense in building what is called the "Atlantic Dock," covering a space of forty acres of ground, where vessels can discharge cargo right into the warehouses, and when it is to be reshipped vessels in like manner come alongside and receive their cargoes from the warehouses, without subjecting the owner to any charge of drayage or risk of damage from wet. In Liverpool, with her growing commercial importance, so imperative was this want felt to be, that to save property from damage on account of weather, and to save expenses in handling it, Parliament sanctioned, by acts passed in 1844 and 1845, the erection of the "Birkenhead Docks and Warehouses;" and to them the crown has granted an area of two hundred and seventy-two and one-fourth acres, which form the site of those works, having a frontage of twenty-five hundred yards. The objects, as stated by the Secretary, Macgregor Laird, Esq., are to be the saving of expences to the owner of the goods warehoused on the premises, in

1st. Cartages to and from the warehouses.

2d. Expenses in portorage.

3d. One half the rate of Fire Insurance.

4th. All dock dues.

5th. All pilferage.

6th. Damage from exposure to weather, the goods being under cover from the time they leave the ship's hold, until delivered into the river craft, or upon the rail road car.

The same objects, the same interests, demand for New Orleans the like improvements. The power is with the Legislature to authorize and sustain them. The petition of the Mayor, Recorder and Aldermen of the 3d Municipality now before the Legislature, is intended to effect this object, by clothing the Recorder and Council of this Municipality, with power to authorize the erection of warehouses upon the Levee, in front of Levee street, and collonading over the wharfs. These collonades to be well covered over with slate and zinc, to the

waters edge, so that vessels coming alongside can discharge their cargoes immediately under cover, and where the cargo will be protected from rain, damp and mud. This collonade to be sixty feet deep from the outer edge of the wharf, and always open to the public. The warehouses to commence at the end of the sixty feet, and extend back to Levee street. This will secure all property from damage, and it is thought will overcome to a great extent the souring of flour in our climate, by securing to it the free circulation of air from the river at all times; and at the same time secure to the owner, the transmission in safety and good order his property, without the charge of cartage and the numberless expenses now incident to its transit through New Orleans. The streets abutting on the river to be left open for the free passage of carts, &c., to and from the wharfs; but allowed to be arched over and covered in as far back as Levee street—the drays, &c. to pass under the arch.

The Legislature in granting this power, interferes with none of the rights of the other Municipalities: nor with any right of the public to the front so proposed to be improved. All advantages arising from the disposal of the property by the Recorder and Aldermen, by grants for limited periods, to accrue to the Municipality and consequently to the public. The 60 feet proposed to be left open for the public, along the whole front, is a wider space than Liverpool, Boston, New York, Philadelphia or Baltimore presents, and is sufficiently wide for all useful purposes.

In view of the importance of this measure, we have before us the fact, that flour of the same brand, and the same quality, shipped from Cincinnati to New York, by way of the canals, &c., is worth from 25 to 75 cents per barrel more, than that which is shipped by way of New Orleans to the same market. The effect of this is seen on our commerce in this, that by one route, in eleven months of the past year, there went to New York, 33,680 barrels of flour more than came to New Orleans the whole year. Nor is it doubted that a corresponding increase has attended the Pennsylvania works. Looking then at the great increase of Western produce, on one route only, (the New York) and seeing the gigantic efforts still making to add other artificial means of drawing the Western commerce to the Atlantic seaboard—the present cheapness of its transportation, and the probable lower charges, which will annually, hereafter be made, and to all this add, the other works now under way, by New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia, and the works of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois connecting the Lakes with the Ohio and Mississippi river, and we think it will be suf-

ficient to arouse the attention of the Legislature of Louisiana and the people of New Orleans to a sense of their danger, their duty and interest; and result in the adoption of such measures and facilities as will arrest this *up stream tendency of Western commerce*, and re-direct it to our great Southern Emporium.

The supineness with which we of the South have hitherto looked upon the efforts of our Northern brethren to draw away from our port so large a part already of the produce of the great Valley of the Mississippi, should be stopped at once, and our energies aroused to apply quickly and effectually the remedies properly applicable to win for New-Orleans not the second or third rank, but the *front rank* in commercial importance over every other city in the world. We have so far given away to the idea that New-York is to be *the great city*, that even the Hon. R. J. Walker, Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, in his recent Report just delivered to Congress, uses the following language: "Under such a system of reciprocal interchange of commodities with all the world, the great city of New-York would become (what she is now for the States of this Union,) the great mart for the commerce of the various nations of the earth. Located nearer the centre of the commerce of the world than any European city, she would go on augmenting until she surpassed them all." If we are but true to ourselves, we think that in a few years we shall be enabled to enlighten the Hon. Secretary's commercial geography, and learn him that New-Orleans is that centre, and not New-York.

The signs of the times indicate clearly, that a change in the course of the trade of Asia and the East Indies must, and soon will be brought about. It is also equally clear, that a change is being effected in our territorial limits, which will point out New Orleans as the gathering point, where that commerce will centre,—whether the passage for it across this continent be at the Isthmus of Panama, or from some part of the Gulf of California by rail-way to the navigable waters of the Mississippi, Red River or the Arkansas, or some point on the Mississippi which shall throw that commerce on New Orleans. The expense of such a work on this route, or by way of the Rio Bravo del Norte, besides going through a much superior country in every respect, can be effected for half the cost of Mr. Whitney's railroad to the Pacific, going as it does through barren mountains. The distance is shorter and through a rich and delightful country, free from the ice and snow, that for more than half the year must obstruct the passage of Mr. Whitney's road over the rocky deserts through which it has to pass. Immediately associated with this subject, and intimately connected with the

prosperity of New Orleans is the Mexican Gulf railroad, having its terminus near Cat Island, approachable at all times by the heaviest war vessels where a good harbour could be constructed by the General Government safe at all seasons for the heaviest vessels known to the mercantile marine, and even more accessible than that of New York. When this connection with the Pacific is once had, the foreign commerce of New Orleans and the great West will be at once cut loose from the leading strings of New York, and the supplies now purchased in the North for the South and West, will be had direct from the work-shops of Europe, the payments for which will be made in Western produce shipped direct to New Orleans, the great mart for all the nations of the world; and the profits we are now paying to the mercantile gentlemen of New York will be secured to our own city by the enterprise of our own merchants.

If the age in which we live, be distinguished for any one thing more than another, it is in the developement of labour-saving inventions; and by consequence, a saving of money that would otherwise have to be expended in whatever pursuit a man engaged. In one word, *economy* is made to be felt in every department of trade and of life. In view of this we have to meet our Northern brethren as competitors for the commerce of the West and of the world, upon an equal field. And the best speech to induce the shipment of property either to New Orleans by way of the river, or New York by way of the canals, rail roads, &c., from the West, is that speech which addresses its arguments to the pocket, rather than the friendship of the shipper. It is the *purse* that sits in judgment over this controversy; and it is the purse that will decide, and from its decision there *can* be no appeal. If it is made the interest of the West to ship their produce to the Northern Atlantic cities through artificial channels, to the North it will go. Make it their interest to ship to New Orleans, and to New Orleans it will come. It is worse than useless, it is childish to shut our eyes to the facts, which the last twenty years have developed. The amount already of Western produce going forward to the North through these canals, &c., has increased more rapidly in the past five years than the proportionate increase to New Orleans. The statistics already show an amount in bulk and value equal to one-half of what came to New Orleans the past year, where twenty years ago there went nothing. What the amount will be, when all the present works now under way shall have been completed, no man can now properly estimate. Whilst these great efforts are being made by the North, shall we of the South, sit idly by, gazing with folded arms as though bereft of our

senses in the contemplation of their stupendous efforts to wrest from us this commerce of the West? NO! Let us put our hand to the work, and never stop until we have successfully and effectually secured that commerce, and placed New Orleans where she deserves to be, at the head of the commercial world. It can be done, and it ought to be accomplished.

The proposed improvement insures safety to the property from any weather—dispatch in unloading and loading vessels—cheapness in the transmission of property, and on the 837,985 barrels of flour received at this port the past year, would have saved, had it been in existence, \$209,496 to the owners of it, by securing it from soiling. The saving in grain would have been greater. What is said of these is equally applicable to every thing else shipped to New Orleans. But it may be said by some, that these improvements will throw a large class of useful citizens out of employment, together with their drays. Those who think so, do not reason correctly. It is to bring back to New Orleans the business that has already left it, and more that will still leave it if these improvements and advantages are withheld. Let us first secure the business of the West, by making it to the interest of all her people to send their property to New Orleans, and the occasions for the use of drays will always multiply. If we permit the business to go by way of the Lakes, canals and railroads, we shall not only lose the drayage, but the business also. With the business, we secure all its adjuncts and dependencies. Besides it is now no longer a matter of choice with us. We have either to present the advantages ourselves, or they will be presented by our Northern competitors. It may then be too late to apply a remedy. Of the amount of Western produce sent to this city, three-fourths of it is destined for shipment either foreign or coastwise. Now, every steamboat load thus brought to our landing, calls for a ship to carry it away. Every ship and every steamboat so arriving must leave a corresponding amount of money in our city, besides the charges necessarily connected with the transmission of the produce itself.

But this is not all. The goods, wares and merchandize needed to supply this great Western country, coming from the North or from Europe, partake of the benefit of the improvement. They will then be received without risk of injury from wet or damp, either to the packages or their contents, and *speed, safety, economy, and convenience*, are secured to the *owner, the shipper, the ship, and the steamboat* that bring or carry them away. The Turks' Island and Liverpool salt, which is consumed

in the West, is here provided for in the easiest and simplest form, and bring heavy and bulky articles, the drayage upon them now is immense, in proportion to their value, to say nothing of the trouble. When New Orleans is cut loose from the leading strings of New York, and will furnish us as she can and ought to do, the importing merchant, to supply direct from Europe as cheap goods as New York, Boston, &c., to the Western retail merchant, and then possessing these conveniences and facilities for trade, a commerce must and will spring up between New Orleans and the great West, by exchanges of products for goods, &c., the value of which is incalculable: and of its results to Louisiana no one can tell the extent and worth. But one thing we do know,—it will make our city the centre of the commerce of the whole world. The object therefore is worth contending for, and is a prize every way worthy of our ambition to grasp.

The obstructions to the navigation by way of the New York Canals, by ice, &c., show an average of the last twenty years, of 124 days for each year, and that the Hudson is obstructed ninety-one days on the average for the same period. On the Pennsylvania works, the obstruction will be about the same as of the Hudson. But we must remember that the rail roads now in progress of completion, will obviate the difficulties of canal transportation and furnish throughout the year advantages, equally available at any season. Nor must we forget, that for several months in the year, the navigation of many of the tributaries of the Mississippi are also totally obstructed by the low water, shoals, sand-bars and snags in summer, and ice in winter. Now these difficulties and obstructions must, and ought to be obviated, so as to secure at all times, safe and easy access to New Orleans at all seasons of the year. In this the whole West and South are deeply interested, and would no doubt act in concert with Louisiana and New Orleans for the purpose of carrying forward any measures needful for the securement of an object so desirable to all. By a concert of action had, it is not doubted, but sufficient appropriations from Congress could be obtained to open *every* river and tributary of the Mississippi, by the removal of snags, shoals, and bars, as would at any season of the year afford an outlet for the vast productions of the West to New Orleans, with but partial exceptions to some of the more northern streams during the winter months, when they might be temporarily closed by ice.

If all these improvements demanded by the interest of the West, and New Orleans especially, were now completed, and the navigation

of the Mississippi and all its tributaries rendered what it ought to be, and kept so by annual appropriations, what would New Orleans and her commerce be in twenty years from this time?

The commerce from the West alone, to New Orleans, reached the enormous sum of 77,193,464 dollars the past year. Mr. Calhoun in his report to the Senate, the 26th of June last, upon the great Memphis Convention, estimates that in ten years from that date it would reach 300,000,000 of dollars. This estimate is based upon the ratio of increase annually, which he fixes at eleven and one half per cent. per annum. If the ratio of increase of population continue to the West for twenty years, as it has for the past twenty, and the improvements herein indicated be made now, and the navigation rendered always easy and safe, the annual commerce thrown upon New Orleans will reach over six hundred millions dollars, an amount greater by more than double that of the whole foreign commerce of the Island of Great Britain at this time. A writer in the Commercial Review of the South and West, Vol. III., p. 40, assuming the annual average increase at only ten per cent., which is one and a half below Mr. Calhoun, shows by a calculation therein made that the commerce of New Orleans in twenty years will reach the sum of 571,250,987 dollars. An idea of the magnitude of this trade may be formed by a comparison of last years business, estimated at \$77,193,464, and the number of vessels it took to bring and carry it away, with the number it will take to bring and carry away the produce and merchandize, valued at 571,250,987 dollars. To bring the produce of last year to New Orleans, it took

Of flatboats, 2763

Of steamboat arrivals, 2770—5533 vessels altogether. To carry it away it required 2085 ships, brigs, barques, schooners. But the commerce twenty years hence would require

Of flatboats, 20722

Steamboat arrivals, 20774—41496 vessels. And to carry it away, 15637 ships, brigs, barks and schooners: or a daily average of nearly 500 vessels of the above descriptions or in other words there would be at the port of New Orleans a daily arrival of 350 steamboats and flatboats, and a daily arrival of over 100 ships, barks, &c.

A view so magnificent, a prospect so glorious to Louisiana, a destiny so enviable and triumphant to New Orleans, is surely worth contending for.

Art. III.—THE BATTURE FORMATION IN FRONT OF THE CITY OF NEW-ORLEANS.

We have for a long time been desirous of furnishing to our readers an accurate delineation of the changes which have taken place in front of the city of New-Orleans, from the earliest times, in consequence of the incessant and immense deposit which the river Mississippi is lodging here in its onward course to the ocean. We have desired, too, to show the origin, and trace the progress of the various conflicts of rights and interests which have embittered individuals, disturbed courts of justice, and occupied public councils for almost half a century, growing out of the important and momentous question of ownership to property so vast, and in constant course of creation by the hand of Nature. Our studies have not been sufficient to warrant us in the undertaking now, but regarding the subject as of so much interest, and likely to be hereafter brought into general discussion again, we shall continue to give it a patient investigation, and will publish at an early day as satisfactory a paper upon the subject as our ability may admit. All the materials being before us for this article, we shall not anticipate now, further than to introduce the subject, and refer briefly to two movements which have lately been made by different municipal divisions of the city, in relation to this batture property, separating them from the river.

The *Faubourg Marigny*, or what is now known as the *Third Municipality* of New-Orleans, when laid out, reserved for public uses a margin on the river, at that time deemed absolutely necessary for the conveniences of commerce. The notarial act of 1805, by which the donation as it was called to the public, was made on the part of Mr. Marigny, declared la cession et l'abandon de la batture se trouvant au-delà du chemin de la levée bordant le fleuve dans toute la longueur du faubourg, est reconnue—"the cession and abandonment for the purpose of trade of the alluvion or batture, being or lying beyond the levee road, bordering on the river through the whole length of the suburb."

The municipality has lately had cause to regard what was intended as a convenience, in the light of a real disadvantage to its best interests, and to the interests of the trade of the whole city. At a late meeting in Council a memorial was drawn up to the Legislature now in session, complaining of the grievance, and proposing what is regarded to be the remedy. The memorial is before us, and the paper which we publish in the present number of the Review on the "*Contests for the Valley Trade*,"

was intended by the author to illustrate more fully the views of the municipal corporation and the objects sought to be attained, than could have been done in the limits of a memoir. We have no doubt that the subject will be deemed deserving of the most serious consideration of our legislators, and that in any action they may take, they will be influenced by the most enlarged views of the true and substantial interests of the city and of the State at large.

The memorialists say :

"The grant to the public, wide as it is, in some places, was certainly very liberal on the part of the donor, the Hon. B. Marigny ; nor is it now desired by your petitioners to change the *right* of the public in and to said batture ; but the great and constantly increasing commerce of the city of New Orleans, demand a modification of the same 'to give to trade' all the facilities that experience now points out as absolutely wanting. As the Levees, batture and wharves now exist, evils have arisen, and must continue to exist, until competent authority be conferred upon the Council of the Municipality, to adopt the improvements which time and the ever increasing demands of commerce imperatively require, unless, indeed, it should be considered that this great Southern emporium should forever be behind hand in presenting facilities and conveniences, that the more favourable enactments of other legislatures enable our Northern Atlantic cities to present at all times, the improvements experience may point out as useful."

And in view of all the circumstances they petition

"That power be conferred upon the Recorder and Aldermen composing the Council of the Third Municipality of the city of New Orleans, over all that space of ground along the whole front of said Municipality, lying between Levee street and the outer edge of the wharves, so that suitable warehouses for the reception, sale and shipment of produce, wares and merchandize may be erected thereon, leaving at least sixty feet front next the river, counting from the outer edge of the wharves, always open to public use, without obstruction, but permitting the said sixty feet to be collonaded over, and well covered, so as to protect all property from injury by wet or mud, and save it from the inclemency of the weather. That the streets butting on the river be always open, but allowed to be covered over as far back as Levee street, so that drays, carts, &c., may at all times have a free passage open, out to the wharves. The sixty feet front to be left open, is a wider space, on the average, than Philadelphia, New York, Boston or Liverpool allows for such objects, and is fully sufficient for all convenient purposes of loading or unloading vessels of every description. The authority to carry out this proposal is asked to be so restricted as that no grant of any portion of this space shall be made for a longer term than twenty-five years, but is asked that power be conferred to make them so long, should the interest of the Municipality require or the wants of commerce demand. The Municipality to derive all the benefit from the grants it makes, upon the terms agreed upon by the parties."

The batture in front of *Municipality No. Two* has been long the source of fruitful litigations, and there is little probability that these

will be entirely at rest for some time to come. The compromise made by the city with Livingston and others, opposing claimants, in 1820, has been regarded as enforcing *in perpetuo* a devotion of this batture to public uses, without the right or power remaining in the city or the Municipality under it, to sell, dispose of, or change in any way its nature from that of an open common. We will not now enter into a discussion of this question, but propose only to introduce a few passages from the Report of the Finance Committee of the Municipality made last year, and from the observations of the Chairman of that Committee, S. J. Peters, Esq., explanatory of the Report. That the subject was ably treated will not be denied, whatever diversity of opinion may have existed, and may still exist upon it.

The Report alleges "The great extent of this batture has become an evil of such magnitude as to require the early action of the Council. It causes great depreciation of property in its vicinity, and its width is such as to add much to the charges on produce for labor and drayage. Not being required as a quay or landing, it is worse than useless—and in fact has become a nuisance, and has been so represented by memorials of the citizens. If divided into squares and lots, and covered with commodious stores and warehouses, many millions of property would be called into existence, enriching the city, greatly facilitating the transactions of business, giving profitable employment to capital and labor, and far from injuring the property in its vicinity would greatly add to its value, by the concentration of business and population.

"A disposition of this vast property so advantageous to the public interest, without being prejudicial to any other, it would be but reasonable to suppose would meet with no opposition; but that opposition will be made, is certain, and the sooner the nature of it is understood the better. It is pretended that to apply it to purposes of public utility, as is proposed, would be in violation of the rights of the former riparian proprietors. They abandoned to the city in 1820, for valuable considerations, all the rights which they then claimed to have, in the ground now forming Tchoupitoulas street, New Levee street and all intermediate streets, to the upper line of the Faubourg St. Mary, that on which the New Levee was constructed, and to the alluvial formation in front of said New Levee, extending from its base to the line of low water; and it was made a condition, and a very reasonable one, that the ground thus abandoned for Streets and a Levee should not be built upon, nor alienable or liable for the debts of the city. This transaction was called a "donation," but the city exacted from the "donors" to make the New Levee and new Streets at their own expense, and besides, to pay towards the erection of a new Market ten dollars for every running foot of ground fronting New Levee street. Such onerous conditions exacted from "donors" by the recipients of their liberality, seem so very extraordinary, that it may be supposed that they derived by this transaction from the city some important advantages which are not cited in the act; and so they unquestionably did, for by it the right of the city to all the batture then existing in front of the Faubourg St. Mary, from Tchoupitoulas street to New Levee street was abandoned. *It was no donation*, but was a compromise by which the parties calling

themselves "donors" were quieted in the possession of property worth a million of dollars, to which their title was doubtful, and with which the rights of the city interfered."

In the speech of the Chairman of the Finance Committee, he is reported to have said :

"That within fifty years the alluvial formations in front of this part of the city, (the Second Municipality,) which have been reclaimed and are now susceptible of private ownership, are worth \$5,000,000; which has been equal to \$100,000 per annum during that period; that the causes which have produced these astonishing results are in active operation, and from unerring natural indications, will continue to act for centuries. That the value of the annual alluvial deposits, in front of the Municipality, now, is not less than \$200,000; and that, with the exception of the batture between the Faubourg St. Mary line, and Lacourse street, all belongs to this Municipality.

"Such a source of wealth was never possessed by any city before. In truth, it may be said, that nature itself is our tax gatherer; levying, by her immutable laws, tribute from the banks of rivers, and from the summits of mountains, thousands of miles distant, to enrich, improve and adorn our favored city. It would be impious in man to attempt to frustrate or impede these benevolent provisions for our welfare."

Having thus introduced the subject, we shall be the better prepared hereafter for its discussion. For the present we prefer to express no opinion.

Art. IV.—THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER IN THE OLDEN TIME.

A GENUINE ACCOUNT OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI AND OF THE LAND ON ITS BANKS TO THE RIVER YASOUS, 1776.

New Orleans, Jan. 14th, 1847.

To J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.

My Dear Sir—The old manuscript which I send you, is, with the consent of my father, placed at your disposal for publication, if deemed of sufficient consequence. It is one of several papers in relation to our early condition, found among those of my grandfather; and is in the hand-writing of his brother, Caleb Carpenter. The two brothers, Richard and Caleb, were partners in business, and having established a commercial branch at Pensacola, they came to Louisiana about 1771, that is before the time of the date of this document, (1776), with the view of extending their operations in this direction. They were, I believe, the first Americans who formed a mercantile establishment in Natchez. This document appears to have been intended as notes for the selection of lands, and other commercial purposes. My father (James Carpenter, Esq.) who was perfectly familiar from boyhood with the early state of things in this region of country, has furnished much of the material for the notes which I have added to the papers.

I remain yours, most respectfully,

W. M. CARPENTER.

From the entrance of the River Mississippi to the first hut 8 leagues the lands on both sides are low and swampy, and absolutely uncultivable. From this hut to what is called the first *habitation* 3 leagues, the lands are similar to the former. From this habitation to the concession 14 leagues, the lower part of the lands is also somewhat similar to those last mentioned, and is, consequently, very thinly inhabited, and badly cultivated; but the upper part of them is pretty thickly settled by the French and Dutch inhabitants. Few of these, however, have any negroes, none perhaps more than half a dozen; they go chiefly on the cultivation of corn and rice, and on the raising stock and poultry; such part whereof as they can spare from the support of their own families, they sell to the vessels trading up and down the river, and by that means supply themselves with some necessaries and little luxuries.

From the concession to the town of New Orleans 6 leagues, is a tract thickly settled on both sides of the river, by French inhabitants, and in the highest state of cultivation. Indigo is their chief object, though there are here and there some saw-mills, for making cypress lumber, and these planters may be considered wealthy, generally possessing from ten to fifty slaves, which from the amazing fertility of the soil, in the produce of indigo, yield them a very comfortable and genteel revenue.*

* NOTE BY THE EDITOR.—The contrast as it is furnished by the present condition of this flourishing section of our State, constituting the parish of Plaquemines, and lying below the city, on both sides of the river, to the mouth, with what it was when described by the author of the above sketch, is too striking to be passed over without a remark. A period of seventy years is pregnant with great changes, and in no part of the world more than in ours. Where the "indigo" and the "saw-mills," and the "barren wastes" alone were to be observed, the flourishing sugar estate with its mansion, its mills, its teeming fields, its wealth and its luxuries, are extending further and further, as the river works itself into the ocean. With no natural beauties,—in many parts entirely destitute of trees,—swampy and low, a rich and fruitful soil has yet within its womb the power to engender a garden spot, and the labor of man and his enterprise are creating for our city an avenue from the seas, studded at every pace with all the results of a high and attractive civilization. A prospect, wanting scarce in any element of beauty, shall open ere long from the very mouth of the mighty father of waters, upon the traveler as he approaches its great city, even as it opens upon him now at many an hour's distance.

But for these reflections we have not the space. It may be well to observe that the distances as given us in the manuscript description are but mere rough approximations, without the accuracy which we now have reason to expect. But for the general truthfulness of the sketch we have the best vouchers.

The mouths of the Mississippi river are distant from the city from 105 to 115

The French settlements continue, on both sides of the river, for eleven leagues above the town of New Orleans. These lands are also miles, running far out into the Gulf of Mexico and forming continually from the sedimentary deposits a more extended alluvion or delta.

At a distance of 95 miles from the city are opened the three great forks of the river, which taking different points of the compass like the roots of a giant tree strike outward from the body. These great outlets of the river have received the names of the North East Pass, the South Pass, and the South West Pass. Standing at what is called the "head of the passes," in the river, the view is one of the finest imaginable, and we naturally place ourselves in the position of the *Sieur de la Salle* who stood there nearly two hundred years ago—the second if not the first European.

"At length on the 6th of April, 1682," says his biographer, "the river was observed to divide itself into three channels. The *Sieur de la Salle* separated his company into three divisions, and putting himself at the head of one of them, he took the western channel, the *Chevalier de Tonty*, the middle and the *Sieur Dautray* the eastern. The water soon became brackish, and then perfectly salt, till at last, the broad ocean opened fully before them."

The passes of the Mississippi are of unequal depth and facility for navigation. They are incessantly undergoing changes of every kind from the curious formations made by the river. When the Committee of the Legislature were at the Balize a short time ago, they were informed by the elder pilots of "fillings up" of which we could have hardly conceived; of varying channels and of acres of land rising to the surface from the bed of the river, as if by enchantment, forming strange islands. Curious indeed are the workings of nature at the mouth of this "old" river. At some other day we shall exhibit them to the reader by a detailed statement and by all the necessary drawings.

Each of the three great passes radiate smaller ones; as for example, *Cheval, d'Loutre* and a south easterly pass radiate from the North East Pass and the grand bayou from the South Pass. The South West Pass extends farthest out into the sea. Between the South and North East Pass the river has deposited a long, narrow and marshy strip of land, known as the BALIZE. This site is approached by the North East Pass upon which it fronts. It is the resort of the pilots of the river, and constitutes their home. They have reclaimed with infinite labour from a waste of waters, in the heart of immense marshes, of treeless plains, of swamps sweeping on every hand, a spot of dry earth, upon which a neat village has been erected. One fails not to admire the industry and the enterprise which fight at no labor, but speak the garden thus out of the dreary and inhospitable waste. In their rugged lives the comforts of home are not forgotten and they have spared no pains upon these homes. Society and civilization have grown up at the Balize. Strange country there, to be peopled by thriving families, to raise prattling children and to entertain schoolmasters!

In ascending the river 22 miles from the head of the passes, are seen the site of the old Spanish fort, St. Bourbon, and on either bank of the river the American fortifications, St. Philip and Jackson.

As far as these forts and for ten or fifteen miles farther the settlements are few, squalid and scattering, and no plantations present themselves. A little on, however, and these last come into view, the latest taken into cultivation first. This property

in the highest state of cultivation ; indigo being, likewise, the sole object of the planters, some few of whom possess even 100 slaves.

is found highly favorable for the growth of sugar, and in the extended country below the city as far as the plantations reach, the estates are wealthy and many thousand hhds. of the staple are produced.

According to the statement of Mr. Champomier, furnished in the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, the following plantations below the city are enumerated with their respective crops in 1844. Since this period many new estates have been commenced at points more distant from the city than the most distant of these, Mr. Osgood's, and their products may soon be expected in the market.

SUGAR ESTATES ON THE RIVER BELOW THE CITY.

<i>Right Side.</i>			<i>Left Side.</i>		
	Distance.	Hhds.		Distance.	Hhds.
Isaac Osgood,	45 ms.	658	Colonati & Adams,	37	152
George Johnson,	42	530	Bruland Brothers,		158
J. B. Wilkinson,	38	525	Eslati Cornin,	36	179
R. Wilkinson,	37	308	P. C. Wedderstrand,	35	286
Col. Maunsel White,	36	610	A. Lesseps,	31	800
Montgomery & Co.,	34	500	Lizardi Brothers,	27	897
Samuel Packwood,	32	836	Buford & Gordon,	26	448
A. Dunford,	31	304	C. Regio,	22	222
W. Erskins,	29	312	F. Delery,	21	215
B. Bahie,		222	M. Ribas,	19	336
P. J. Fleytas,		168	J. Saul,	17	584
B. Bahie,	26	102	A. Lesseps,	16	500
Bernard Marigny,		385	A. Lanaux,	15	441
Rapp & De Blanc,	19	222	J. A. Morgan,	13	635
Estate M. Regio,		385	W. H. Morgan,	12	625
A. Villere,	18	387	A. Michoud,		29
Est D. Urquhart,	17	390	Proctor Brothers,		570
A. Gordon,		383	Mrs. Regio,		565
A. & J. Dennistoun & Co.,	16	515	Mrs. Olivier,		415
Felix Villere,	14	226	P. Reaud,		142
Jules Villere,	13	315	J. Toutant,		400
Caliste Villere,	11	342	Est. Jorda,		298
D. Delacroix,	9	218	Bienvenu Brothers,		285
J. B. Lapetre,	7	330	Est. Jorda,		305
C. Lacoste,	5	355	L. Millaudon,		232
Pierre Hoa,	4	306	Marine & Fagot,		65

(*Left Side Continued.*)

	Ms. from city,	Hhds. made,
B. Poydras,		786
M. & A. Ducros,	12	215
L. D. Beaurgard,	11	136
Mrs. Philippon,	10	202
J. Hewett,	9	116
C. Chiappella,	9	262
G. Villere,	7	372

The Dutch settlements join those of the French, and extend about six leagues further up the river, and are getting wealthy, going principally on the culture of indigo.

The Acadian settlement joins those of the Dutch, extending about eighteen leagues upwards, on both sides of the river, and as high up as the Iberville on the eastern side thereof; and as the inhabitants are industrious they have met with great encouragement from the Spanish Government, and have, as yet, gone wholly on the cultivation of corn, and raising stock.

From the termination of the Acadian settlement, on the west side of the river, to Point Coupée (a distance of twelve leagues), the country is uninhabited, if you except two or three scattered huts.

Point Coupée, one of the oldest settlements on the banks of this river, is perhaps the most beautiful, as well as fertile spot contiguous to the Mississippi. Though these lands have been in constant cultivation for forty years past, yet they do not appear to have suffered the least degree of diminution in the fertility of the soil. The planters here do, even now, sometimes make one hundred pounds of pure indigo, from one acre, and about seventy-five pounds may be considered as their average. One negro will plant and attend two acres of indigo, and, withall can raise his own provisions. These planters generally possess from twenty to one hundred slaves, and, some, more. Last year (1775) fifty thousand pounds of copper indigo, of the best quality (about one-fourth of all the indigo raised on the banks of this river), was made in this settlement. The lands are bounded by a cypress swamp lying parallel with the river, at about a mile distant from it, and that swamp is bounded by the great plains of Apalachée (1) where live a considerable number of French settlers, who raise mules and cattle, and bring them down annually, for sale, to Point Coupée. There are no settlers higher up on the western side of the river.

Previous to a description of the English territory, it will be necessary to make the following general observations respecting the lands, from first point of observation to the Iberville, viz: that the extension of the settlements backwards, on both sides the river, is confined by a cypress swamp, running parallel therewith, so as to give in no place more than a mile, and in many places not half a mile, in plantable land, in depth from the river: that these cypress swamps are bounded, respectively, by the great bay of St. Bernard, and the salt lakes and ponds communicating therewith on the one hand; and by the Lakes Ponchartraine and Maurupas on the other; and that the lands immediately on

(1) Opelousas, is meant.—W. M. C.

the banks of the river being generally higher than those which lie at some distance from it, none of the overflowing waters from the Mississippi ever return into its channel again.

The river or rather creek Iberville, on the eastern side of the Mississippi, bounds part of the Isle of Orleans, and forms the division of the English and Spanish settlements. It runs into the Amit and is almost dry for several months in the year, being never navigable, even for canoes, except when the Mississippi is high. Here is the English town or rather intended town of Manshac, thirty-five leagues from New Orleans, where the English territory on the banks of the Mississippi commences.*

* NOTE BY THE EDITOR.—We shall not attempt a contrast of the country described with its present appearance and condition. The most prolific, the most prosperous, the most wealthy positions in the State are to be found in this section from New Orleans to Bayou Sara. Our object now is only a few desultory remarks upon some of the points touched in the "description."

1. *The Indigo Culture.*—This was at one period an important staple of this State as it was in other parts of the South. As early as 1720 the planters were furnished with the seed by the Louisiana Company. In 1769 the province exported it to the value of \$100,000. Fifty thousand pounds in 1775, is stated as the crop of a single settlement. In 1802, according to Martin, the whole export of the State was but 3000 lbs.; since then it has been entirely abandoned, from the triumphant competition of the East India article.

2. *The Dutch Settlement.*—When the scheme of Law had failed, in 1723, the German emigrants he had seduced over, were only deterred from returning home by a concession made to them on the part of the government of lands on both sides of the river, about twenty miles above the city. They soon became excellent farmers and supplied the markets of the city. "Loading their pirogues with the produce of their weeks work, on Saturday evening they floated down the river and were ready to spread at sunrise, on the first market that was held on the banks of the Mississippi, their supplies of vegetables, fowls and butter. Returning at the close of the market they reached their homes early in the night and were ready to resume their work at sunrise, having brought home the groceries and other articles needed in the course of the week."

3. *The Acadians.*—During the contests between England and France, 1750–60, these people who inhabited a country in Nova Scotia, were driven from their homes by the British, and many sought refuge in Louisiana. The levee and square of the city, says the historian, presented on their arrival a spectacle not unlike that they offered about a quarter of a century before, on the landing of the women and children snatched from the hands of the Natchez. Like these the Acadians were greeted with tenderness and hospitality. Every house in the city afforded a shelter to these unfortunate people. Charity burst open the door of the cloister, and the nuns ministered with profusion and cheerfulness to the wants of the unprotected of their sex. They settled above the German coast, on both sides of the Mississippi, and in course of time their plantations connected the latter settlement with that of Baton Rouge

The first settlement from thence, two and a half leagues from the Iberville, is Mr. David Williams'; and from the lower line of this settlement to the boundary of Mr. Mitchell's tract (two and a half leagues) the lands are level, or rather low, but sufficiently dry and firm, and withal extremely fertile. In this space are six settlements.

From the lower line of Mr. Mitchell's tract to the upper boundary of Mr. Watts' plantation (1) two miles, a level, beautiful, amazingly fertile plain, and about a mile in depth, runs parallel with the river, at the extent whereof commences a gradual rise, terminating in another level equally beautiful, the whole being covered with oaks, magnolias, canes, &c. This tract is capable of the highest degree of cultivation, either for health, wealth, or amusement; the upper level being adorned with several natural mounds, commanding very extensive views of the river (which here makes a fine angle), and of the lands opposite and adjacent; yet there are only two settlements in this space, though the whole of it is located.

and Point Coupee. It is at this day known by the appellation of the Acadian Coasts.

4. *Baton Rouge*.—This does not appear by name in the sketch above though the writer describes the vicinities. It is a very ancient town and has witnessed chivalrous deeds in arms. We had the pleasure not long since of calling upon the venerable General Thomas, who is perhaps the only survivor of those brave men. The growth of the town has been chiefly since these events, and as it has now been made the Seat of Government of the State, great interest will be manifested in it. The history of Baton Rouge from the earliest period is a desideratum. The following passage from Martin shows its early origination.

"The only settlements then begun below the Natchez, were those of St. Reine and Madame de Mezieres, a little below Point Coupee; that of Diron d'Artagnette at Baton Rouge; that of Paris, near Bayou Manshac; that of the Marquis d'Anconis, below Lafourche; that of the Marquis d'Artagnac, at Cannes Brules; that of de Mense, a little below; and a plantation of three brothers of the name of Chauvin, lately come from Canada, at the Tchonpitoulas."

For the name, *Baton Rouge*, we have heard various derivations assigned. Mr. Gayarre, in his history of Louisiana, relies upon this, which we translate: It is known that the cypress, of which the bark has a red colour, grows to a prodigious height; its trunk is without branches, and its head only is crowned with foliage, being as it were the capital of the column. Le Page du Pratz relates that in his time a famous cypress was seen there, from which a ship carpenter had offered to make two boats, the one of 16 and the other of 14 tons burthen. "As the cypress is a red wood," says du Pratz, "one of the first travelers in this vicinity remarked, that in his opinion this would make a fine *baton* (pole); for this reason the place was called Baton Rouge (red pole)."—Hist. Louisiana, vol. II., par Chas. Gayarre.

(1) This plantation extended to the high ground on which Baton Rouge is situated. I cannot account for the entire silence respecting this place, though at this time it was little more than a station occasionally occupied by troops.—W. M. C.

From the upper line of Mr. Watts' settlement to Mr. Pousset's plantation, two leagues, a cypress swamp a quarter of a mile in depth, runs parallel with and very near to the river; the settlers here living on the high lands back of the same, which cut off their communication with the river for a considerable part of the year. In this space are five settlements,—Mr. Pousset is settled on part of Governor Johnson's(1) ten thousand acre tract, the lands whereof are generally high to the edge.

From Mr. Pousset's to Mr. Cummings plantation opposite to the first island,(2)—three and a half leagues,—the front lands are generally overflowed, and are called "the Devil's Swamp." Within this tract Governor Brown(3) has located two thousand acres. Between Mr. Cummings' plantation and Brown's Cliffs,(4)—one league,—where Governor Brown has located another tract of seventeen thousand acres, there are about half a dozen pretty good settlements. At the upper part of these cliffs is Thompson's Creek,(5) navigable for batteaux when the river is high, and for canoes when it is low, to that vast tract of country called "*the Plains*,"(6) lying back of Governor Brown's last mentioned tract, and calculated for raising and feeding great quantities of hogs, cattle, &c. Between this creek and Mr. Willing's settlement,(7)—which is a very beautiful and fertile one, nearly opposite to another island in the river,—a distance of about twelve leagues, there are half a dozen more good settlements.

From Mr. Willing's plantation to the Natchez Fort,—forty leagues,—are only two settlements of any note on the banks of the river.(8)

(1.) British Governor of Florida.—(W. M. C.)

(2.) This island, once called l'Isle d'Ibberville, is now called Prophet Island; and Mr. Cumming's plantation is now known by the name of the Springfield Plantation.—(W. M. C.)

(3.) He was the British Governor of the Bahamas.—(W. M. C.)

(4.) These are the bluffs which extend from Port Hudson along the river for three miles. These were called Brown's Cliffs when Bartram travelled here in 1773, and are readily identified by the curious lignite bed which that traveller observed, and which was described by me several years since, in Silliman's Journal.—(W. M. C.)

(5.) Thompson's Creek was called by the Spaniards the Rio de la Feliciana.—(W. M. C.)

(6.) These small prairies, once called the "White Plains," are known as Buhler's Plains.—(W. M. C.)

(7.) Now called Tunica. The Bayou Tunica was called Willing's Bayou as late as 1799, and is mentioned under this name in Ellicott's Journal.—(W. M. C.)

(8.) Neither the Bayou Sara nor any settlement at its mouth are mentioned here.

Previous to a description of the Natchez lands, it will be necessary to make these general observations, viz: That from Thompson's Creek to the Natchez Fort, a cypress swamp about half a mile in depth, runs parallel with the river, and generally cuts off its communication with the several plantations, for some part of the year; and, that from Man-shac to that fort the lands back of all the settlements are either high or woody, or spacious plains, (yet very fertile,) and here and there interspersed with lakes and ponds, abounding with fish and wild fowl.

The Natchez, late a French settlement, is seventy leagues from Man-shac, one hundred and five from New Orleans, and one hundred and forty from the sea. Within this district, which takes in a very large tract of country, are the most fertile, beautiful, healthy and variegated lands in this province, or perhaps in the whole continent of America. Watered by abundance of springs and rivulets, without swamps, and every where interspersed with spacious clearings, once old Indian fields, or French plantations, fit for immediate cultivation. This district is chiefly located, though not yet much settled, and lots may be purchased here on very moderate terms. It is also proposed to lay out, immediately, a township, with lots contiguous to the same, on part of the kings' reserve of ten thousand acres near the fort; which lots are to be sold at vendue next Spring, at Pensacola, or on the spot.

It may here be well worth observing, that there are many scattered settlements on the eastern side of the river as high up as the river Yamous, which is about fifty leagues above the Natchez fort, and one hundred and ninety from the sea. The lands improve, if possible, in beauty at least, if not in fertility, as you proceed from the Natchez.

The current of the Mississippi is ever rapid, but particularly so when it is full; and it rises, annually, at the Natchez, thirty-five feet above its usual height, and then its navigation is a good deal incommoded with floating logs and trees.

The settlement at Bayou Sara, or St. Francisville, only commenced about 1790, when Mr. John Mills established at this place. The French, however, had a store, or as it was called "*Magazine*," on the eastern bank of the Bayou Sara, about ten miles from its mouth, at the place still known as Mr. La Jeune's plantation. This was a trading depot. The Bayou Sara has long been known by this name, but in a copy in my possession taken from an old map in the Bureau de la Marine, in Paris, this stream is called *La Riviere de la Pucelle Juive*.—(W. M. C.)

Art. V.—GEOLOGY OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS RELATIVE TO THE GEOLOGICAL REVOLUTIONS
AND PHYSICAL CHANGES IN THE VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

PART I.

It is beyond our design to enter into any minute examination of the geological formation of this great region, but merely to glance at the primitive condition and the subsequent changes and revolutions which may have taken place in this portion of the globe. A great portion of these revolutions may have been effected while the primitive ocean rolled its waves, with a depth of many hundred feet over a great portion of this continent. Other important changes and revolutions, gradually adapting its surface to the use of the different orders of animals and man, may, and some of them certainly have been effected since the recession of the waters.

That many important changes have taken place in the surface of this continent, and in the valley of the Mississippi since the recession of the waters of the primitive ocean, none can deny; for the facts are too plainly recorded in the great volume of Nature, where all may read and see for themselves. The power by which these changes and revolutions were produced, was no less than the *fiat* of the omnific Creator, and the eternal laws of Nature, established at the creation of matter, and continued in operation ever since by the overruling Providence of the same Almighty power.

Besides the unalterable laws of nature, which are in constant operation, the agency of man promoting the operations of physical forces, may contribute to produce many new changes of surface. The combined operation of these agencies might produce a speedy change in the actual condition of a large portion of the valley of the Mississippi. Small changes in the relative position of a few rocks may produce extensive changes in the relative condition of large bodies of land and water.

A single instance may illustrate the principle. In the north-eastern portion of the valley of the Mississippi, there are large lakes or inland seas, which together, occupy a portion of the earth's surface equal to nearly one-half of the gulf of Mexico. The bottoms of the larger lakes are several hundred feet below the surface of the gulf; although their surfaces are from two hundred and thirty to six hundred and fifty feet above the same level. By the removal of a portion of the rocky barriers which confine these inland seas to their present elevation, the greater portion of all these lakes or seas might be drained, and their

waters discharged through the upper Mississippi and Ohio rivers into the gulf of Mexico, until their surfaces should be reduced from two hundred and fifty to three hundred and fifty feet below their present elevations: the smaller lakes would thus become dry land, and the larger greatly contracted in extent.

There is ample geological evidence of former changes around these lakes, indicative that at some former period they were far more extensive than their present outline, and that their surface at a comparatively recent geological date, has been elevated nearly to the level of the surrounding highlands, which now rise several hundred feet above the waters.

This former elevation has been reduced to the present level by the gradual and successive removal of portions of the former *strata* and the rocky barriers by which the waters were confined, before the present channels of the St. Mary, Detroit and Niagara rivers were opened. The lowest and deepest of those channels is the gorge of the Niagara, which has been excavated to the depth of three hundred feet, by the continued action of running water, and the disintegration of the lime-stone rock.

Since the removal of these barriers, the level of the upper lakes has been reduced probably not less than two hundred feet. By this reduction extensive undulating plains and marshes have been exposed along their shores; which by the subsequent action of rain-floods and running waters, have been shaped into beautiful habitable lands.

Were these barriers still further removed, until the gorge of Niagara should extend into Lake Erie, that lake would be completely drained, for its deepest portion now scarcely exceeds one hundred feet. The same gorge continued to Lakes Huron and Michigan, would lower their surfaces not less than two hundred feet, and restrict their shores to less than half their present extent, exposing extensive undulatory plains and sand hills around their shores, to be shaped subsequently by running waters for the use of man and beast.

A similar gorge opened from Ottawa on the Illinois to Lake Michigan, would reduce the surface of Lakes Michigan and Huron at least one hundred and eighty feet; and reversing the course of the Detroit and St. Clair rivers, would discharge the waters of Lake Erie and Lake Huron over a cataract at the present straights of Mackinac, to find their way to the Gulf of Mexico, through Lake Michigan to the Illinois and Mississippi rivers. Such a change in the relative position of these large bodies of water on our northern boundary, would greatly diminish

the extent of the northern lakes, and reverse the tide of commerce from Lake Ontario to the Gulf of Mexico.

The relative positions of the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Ocean are such that by one of those revolutions of nature which have taken place repeatedly in the lapse of geological periods, a change might be effected in the whole Atlantic coast of the United States, from the Chesapeake Bay to the Capes of Florida, and upon the whole northern coast of the Gulf as far as Mexico.

The surface of the Gulf has been estimated by competent geographers to have an elevation of some twenty-two feet above the adjacent Pacific Ocean, lying west of the straits of Darien. These two oceans are separated by a narrow neck of land scarcely sixty miles in width. The region north and south is of igneous origin; and one of those great volcanic disruptions which separates continents, and detaches, elevates and sinks islands,(1) might disrupt the Isthmus of Darien, and connect the two oceans by a strait not inferior to that which connects the Mediterranean sea with the Atlantic Ocean. The waters from the Gulf of

(1.) In Imlay's America, p. 90-92, (Lond. Ed., 1792,) we find the following, viz.: "There is no doubt that many such accidental changes have occurred in the world before it became settled in its present condition and state. That there have happened some such accidents by which the general body of land and water hath been changed in America, we have reason to infer from the Chinese chorography, called *Quan-yuki*, which describes *Tshaossanas*, in Corea, which is now divided from it by the gulf of *Leaa Tong*, where the sea has encroached so much that the mountain *Kiesheshang*, which was formerly part of the continent, is now nearly five hundred leagues off at sea. If the land of China became thus much depressed by the change of the centre of gravity in the earth, those parts of America which lie in nearly an opposite meridian, would be equally raised. No doubt many partial deluges have happened from such causes; the reason of which, for want of knowledge in what had passed on the opposite side of the globe, could never be explained. Some such changes may have come gradually, and advance by such slow degrees, that in a period of a few ages would not be perceptible; history would therefore take no notice of them. We know by observation how much higher the Atlantic ocean is than the Pacific, and how it is piled up against the American coast on the western shore of the Gulf of Mexico, driven thither by the trade-winds and the attraction of the sun and moon. Let us suppose, if possible, that a passage might be forced through the Isthmus of Darien, or some other part of America between the tropics; these waters would then pour down from this height and be discharged through this passage, instead of running back through the Gulf of Florida. The height of the Atlantic would be lowered between the tropics, and the level of the Pacific Ocean would rise; the centre of gravity of the earth would shift, and there would be few places on the earth but what would perceive the effect; although none would be able to conceive the cause, that did not know the particular event of this passage being opened."—*Imlays America*, p. 90-96.

Mexico, with an ocean current, would discharge themselves through this strait until its surface should be reduced to the level of the Pacific Ocean. Were the surface of the former reduced only fifteen feet what immense changes would the whole Atlantic and Florida coasts present? How many sea-ports would loose their harbours; and how many shoals would become dry land? How many miles of arable land would be added to the *delta* of the Mississippi river, as its course would be prolonged into the Gulf through the bars and shoals which now extend beyond the Balize?

Let us imagine the condition of this continent when the primitive ocean rolled its chaotic waves over it, before "the Spirit of God moved upon the face of the waters;" let us imagine the first separation of land and water; the first formation of the different deposits; the inceptive stratification of the older stratified rock; which by the play of their respective chemical affinities, have since been converted into the various kinds of lime-stone and marble; or of slate and shale formations: let us also consider the force of gravitation in settling and compressing the softer strata; the draining, sliding, and caving of the higher portions of the less indurated earths; let us conceive the powerful agency of internal fires; the expansive action of heated vapour or steam; the explosive effects of inflammable gases in displacing the firmer strata, whether by the terrible upheaving of earthquakes, or the eruptions of earthy matters thrown up by sub-marine volcanoes, which, in the lapse of geological periods may have not only changed the relative position of the strata near the surface, but which have also thrown vast masses of melted rocks through the superincumbent stratified rocks, to the surface. After a comprehensive view of this kind we shall be prepared to judge of the innumerable changes which have possibly been effected near the earth's surface since the first creation.

When we remember the plastic matters by which many portions of the earth's surface is covered, to the depth of many hundred feet in many places, and the consequent slips and slides of the more elevated portions undermined by the deep excavations of vallies, caused by the force of the retiring ocean, and the subsequent changes by rain-floods and running waters, we can form some idea of the manner in which the surface of the earth received its present form and features, chiefly before the perfect induration of the rock strata through which the great river tributaries have opened their channels.

Relative to the primitive changes or creative revolutions of that portion of North America comprised in the Valley of the Mississippi, as deduced from geological indications, I shall adopt the arrangement of

the learned Professor Rafinesque, as set forth in his "Pro Clio," or "*Geological Annals of the Revolutions of Nature in Kentucky.*"

The Learned Professor observes, that

1. "Every complete history of a country ought to include an account of the physical changes and revolutions which it may have undergone.

2. "The documents for such a geological survey are to be found every where in the bowels of the earth; in its rocks and strata with the remains of organized bodies imbedded in them, and which are now considered as the medals of nature.(1)

3. "The soil of the Mississippi valley shows, like many other countries, that it has once been the bed of the ocean. In James' "Map of the Primitive Ocean," North America is supposed to have been covered by the waters to the depth of *six thousand feet* above the present level of the sea. Hence, as no portion of the table-lands within the Valley of the Mississippi exceeds eighteen hundred feet above the level of the present ocean, many portions of this great region must have been once covered by the waters to the depth of more than four thousand feet."

4. "The formation of the soil throughout the greater portions of the valley proves evidently the gradual and successive recessions of the salt water, without exhibiting many proofs of any very violent or sudden disruptions or emersions of land, or eruptions of the ocean;(2) except some casual occurrences, easily ascribed to earthquakes, salses, and sub-marine volcanoes."

5. "There are no remains of lava or burning volcanoes in the Mississippi Valley. All the strata are nearly horizontal, with vallies excavated by the former tides and streams during the *soft state* of the strata."

With these preliminary remarks of the learned Professor, I shall follow his division of the successive revolutions, or geological changes

(1.) This disquisition of the learned Professor, Constantine S. Rafinesque, formerly "Professor of Natural History, Botany, and Geology," in Transylvania University, was prepared and published as a geological and historical poem to Marshall's History of Kentucky. This learned and indefatigable naturalist, a Greek by birth, traversed on foot, in his scientific rambles, nearly every section of the United States; he was honorary member of nearly all the learned societies in Europe and America. To correct some expressions resulting from his foreign idiom, I have changed the phraseology slightly, in a few instances, and substituted the word "*present*" for his word "*actual*." The whole tenor of his observations as applicable to Kentucky, are equally applicable to the general Valley of the Mississippi, and I have made the application under the commentary, or scholium.

(2.) The region near the north-western great lakes, and as far south as the prairies of Illinois, south and west of Lake Michigan, must be considered an exception to this general rule,—the extensive region of "drift" and boulders speak for themselves.

in the formation of this great region, corresponding to the *six days*, or epochs of creation, each having an indefinite period of duration.

These periods or epochs are enumerated and designated as follows, viz.:

1. The period of *General Inundation*.
2. The period of the *Emersion of the Mountains*.
3. The period of the *Emersion of the Table-lands*.
4. The period of the *Draining of the Lime-stone Sea*.
5. The period of *Noah's Flood*.
6. The period of *Peleg's Flood*.

We will briefly consider each of these epochs or periods, in the next number of the Review, together with the probable changes and formations properly pertaining to each.

Art. VI.—COMMERCE, RESOURCES, ETC., OF OHIO.

The State of Ohio, which was admitted into the American Union in 1802, has become already through the fertility of its soil and the energy and thrift of its people, one of the most important members of that Union, both in wealth and in population, and exercises a degree of influence on our federal councils second only to that of the great States of New York and Pennsylvania.

The admirable message of Governor Bartley, delivered 8th December last, affords us a vast amount of information in reference to the internal condition, resources and prosperity of the State; and feeling as we naturally do in Louisiana and in New Orleans the liveliest interest in the welfare of a community with whom our commercial relations are so intimate, it is impossible that a few pages in our Review could be better occupied than with a few of the facts presented by the Governor and obtained from other reliable sources. The design of the Review is to treat from month to month of each of the States of the South and West, in a similar manner, and ultimately of the States of the whole Union, thus furnishing a body of information of incalculable value for present use and future reference. If the citizens of different States who have the means of information at hand would aid us in any way in the enterprise, the service we cannot doubt would be universally appreciated.

The first permanent settlement in Ohio was made in 1788, at Marietta. French settlers afterwards were located at Gallipolis in 1791. Cleaveland was settled in 1791 by emigrants from New England. From

this humble beginning have grown up in half a century a powerful State!

In the construction of her numerous public works the State of Ohio has contracted a large public debt, the interest upon which, however, she has always met with great and commendable punctuality. According to the Governor's statement the debt is

Total foreign,	\$16,964,292 50
Total domestic,	765,136 12
School and trust fund,	1,482,682 68

Total debt,	\$19,212,111 30
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The returns of property valuations in the State for purposes of taxation were in 1845,

Acres of land,	23,216,286	Valuation,	\$85,916,169
Town property,			22,269,575
Number of horses, 387,200 <i>a</i> \$40		.	15,488,000
" " cattle, 725,253 <i>a</i> 8		.	5,786,824
Capital in trade and at interest,			13,556,517
Carriages for pleasure,			1,055,742
Stages and stage stock,			87,762
			<hr/>
			\$144,160,469

The following table will exhibit the increase in population.

1802	50,000				
1810	230,760	Increase in	8 years,		180,760
1820	581,434	"	" 10	"	350,674
1830	937,679	"	" 10	"	356,245
1840	1,515,161	"	" 10	"	577,482
					<hr/>
Total increase in 38 years,		.	.	.	1,465,165

Average increase per year,	38,557
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Estimated population in 1845 over 2,000,000.

The agricultural capacities of Ohio are unlimited. We learn from a paper prepared by John Brough, Esq., that the valleys of the Scioto and Miami are extensively cultivated in corn, oats, and as meadow lands. Large bodies of these lands are quite level, and the soil is of a rich, deep, and durable character. There are probably no better corn grounds in the Union. In many instances, fields have been cultivated in this crop for forty years in succession, without any evidence of failure in the soil. In the valley of the Sciota, and the territory lying

between that and the Miami, there is raised and fattened a great number of cattle, most of which are sent to the eastern markets. Both these valleys—the Scioto and the Miami—are famous for the number and the quality of their hogs.

TOTAL AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF OHIO IN 1844.

Bushels of wheat,	15,969,000	Value	9,581,400
“ “ barley,	191,000		114,600
“ “ oats,	20,393,000		3,058,950
“ “ rye,	840,000		504,000
“ “ buckwheat,	792,000		475,020
“ “ corn,	48,000,000		9,600,000
“ “ potatoes,	4,847,000		1,211,750
Tons “ hay	1,876,000		11,256,000
“ “ flax and hemp,	1,000		60,000
Pounds “ tobacco,	6,888,000		275,520
“ “ silk cocoons,	31,500		126,000
“ “ sugar,	4,380,000		306,600

Making a total of \$36,570,020

This statement does not embrace the pork, beef cattle, horses, over and above the usual stock, sheep, wool, butter, cheese, and divers other items, which, it is safe to say, if they could be in any wise correctly ascertained, would swell the value of the agricultural products of Ohio to at least forty-five or fifty millions of dollars annually.—Governor Thomas W. Bartley in his message to the General Assembly in December 1844, estimated the whole products of the State as follows :

Agricultural in value,	\$45,362,400
Manufactures “ “	17,505,600
Commerce “ “	9,660,379
Mineral “ “	2,931,218
Forest and lumber “	1,013,063
Fisheries, “	10,525
Total,	<u>\$76,483,188</u>

MANUFACTURES OF OHIO.

At Steubenville—cotton, woollen, iron; coal in the vicinity. At Mount Pleasant—silk, the raw material of which raised in the State; culture encouraged by State bounties. Zanesville—iron works. Day-

ton contains many cotton and woollen factories, cotton, paper and flouring mills, &c. Akron and Cincinnati both contain the rising and growing manufactories. The State has great facilities for these purposes.

MINERALS OF OHIO.

Bituminous coal in large quantities; valued in Cincinnati at about 12 cents per bushel. Salt is obtained abundantly from water yielded by boring, and extensive works have been constructed. Iron ore exists also in large quantities.

"The mineral wealth of Ohio is not and will not be for many years to come, fully developed. The remark that has been made in regard to our manufacturing advantages, may be applied here with equal force. There is no lack of enterprise among our people; but they do not possess the capital necessary to call forth into active exercise and usefulness, these mighty treasures of the earth. Perhaps no State in the Union offers greater inducements to the investment of capital, in this particular, than the State of Ohio. There is here that rare combination so seldom met with, of iron ore, coal, and water power, not only in the same districts, but in the immediate vicinity of each other. The State, in her corporate capacity, has done all that justice requires, or her means will justify. In all these districts abounding in mineral wealth, canals and other public works have been constructed, and are now in successful operation; thus adding to the advantages already enumerated the facilities of transportation to every other section of the State, and an outlet to the markets of the world. The day cannot certainly be far distant, when these signal advantages will attract the attention of capitalists; and then the mineral wealth of Ohio, in its development, will rank the State as high in that particular as she now stands in the vast amount and value of her agricultural productions."

PUBLIC WORKS.

The Ohio canal was undertaken in 1825, completed 1832, connecting Lake Erie at Cleveland with the Ohio at Portsmouth—334 miles; cost \$4,694,934 19. The Miami canal from Cincinnati to Dayton, 87 miles, cost \$1,387,552 16. Hocking canal through the salt and coal regions, cost \$1,000,000. Walhonding canal, 25 miles, cost \$610,000. All of these communicate with each other. The Muskingum improvement of the river of that name by dams and locks from Dresden to the Ohio at Marietta. The Wabash and Erie canal first commenced in Indiana and continued from the Ohio line to the Maumee Bay, 87 miles, cost about \$3,000,000. The Miami extension is connected with this, cost

\$3,500,000. All of these works are of a State character. The State also holds stock in the Pennsylvania and Ohio canal, and in the Milan Canal Company, the White Water and Mad river canals, besides several railroads and turnpikes. The whole will appear in the following table :

	Length.	Cost.	Revenue in 1845.	Expenditure.
Ohio canal,	334	\$4,695,203 69	\$252,199	\$129,184
Miami canal,	85	1,237,552 16	74,320	36,641
“ extension,	139	2,856,635 96	32,007	189,727
Wabash and Erie canal,	91	3,028,340 05	73,907	51,659
Walhonding,	25	607,268 99	28,461	19,655
Hocking canal,	56	975,129 57	4,520	6,953
Muskingum Imp.,	91	1,627,318 29	1,184	2,748
Western and Maumee,	31	256,334 93	6,613	2,664
	852	15,283,783 64	473,211	441,131

Cincinnati, the metropolis of Ohio, is, and has been for some time, the great city of the North-west. Although an object of history for a much earlier period, the city contained in 1795 but 500 inhabitants; in 1805, 960; in 1810, 2500. It was chartered as a city in 1815; in 1846 estimated as high as 80,000 in population, and by its rapid increase bewildering our conceptions of the future.

The number of hogs slaughtered in Cincinnati has increased from 85,000 in 1832, to 240,000 in 1843, and over 300,000 in 1846; number bbls. flour made in 1846, 100,000; gallons linseed oil, 26,000 cask, of which sent to New Orleans and Liverpool. The engine shops are extensive, and the number of steamboats fitted out very great, upwards of fifty annually. Besides this, there are white lead and cotton manufactories, etc., etc. The city has yet attained but a tithe of her importance.

“The rapid growth of the State,” says Mr. Brough, “and her increase in wealth and prosperity, are the best evidences of her advantages, the surest indications of her future greatness. Located in the very heart of the Union, with a soil unsurpassed in fertility by that of any other State, with living streams flowing through, and abundantly watering every section; rich in mineral deposits; possessed of every facility for manufacturing; her whole Southern and Southwestern border washed by the navigable waters of the Ohio; and the interior traversed in every direction by turnpikes, canals and railroads, enhancing the value of property, and affording outlets to the markets of the world; and with all, an enterprising, industrious, and intelligent population, the future is

to Ohio as full of promise as the past is of high and ennobling pride to her own citizens,—of wonder and admiration to the world. In view of all the advantages she possesses, of what has been done in the last twenty years, and of what the next twenty is certain to accomplish, who can set bounds to the future wealth, power and greatness of this YOUNG GIANT OF THE WEST?"

Art. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

JAMES COEUR, DE MEDICIS, ROSCOE.

"For thy *marchauntes* were the great men of the earth."—OLD BIBLE.

"Thou hast multiplied thy merchants above the stars of heaven."—NAHUM, III. 16.

The importance of the mercantile profession was little, if at all, understood by the most advanced nations of ancient time. Many of them considered it disreputable and servile to be connected in any manner with traffic, and they regarded its votaries as necessarily a very inferior order of men.

We find this feeling evinced to a much later period with different degrees of strength, even down almost to our own times. As the arts of peace, however, have been encroaching upon the domain of violence, and distant nations from all the earth have been drawn together and united by a common bond, and under a common sovereign, the absurd prejudices of the past are gradually giving way, and the ministers of commerce have come to be regarded in the highest esteem.

To bring about this better state of things, it cannot be denied the influence of a few of those eminent characters, who have in the past two or three centuries dignified trade as well as human nature itself, has greatly contributed, and their memories should be treasured and their examples copied by all who would serve their generation in a similar manner. It is in this view that we would sketch hastily and in rather a random manner, a few passages in the department of biography, and hereafter, from time to time, continue the subject with method and precision.

But first, however, we shall show the gratifying exceptions which history furnishes to this disfavour of mercantile men in certain countries, and also the various privileges which, by reason of its general importance, has been conferred upon trade in some modern countries.

In France, by the arrets of Louis XIV., 1669, 1701, a nobleman is allowed to trade by land and sea, without any disparagement of his nobi-

lity, and the French have sometimes ennobled their merchants for great enterprises.

The English began early their patronage of merchants, and by a very ancient ordinance the degree of Thane, a rank of nobility, was conferred upon him who had made a certain number of trading adventures by sea. By Magna Charta of King John, it was enacted that all merchant strangers, in amity, shall have safe conduct to come into, depart out of, and remain in England, and to travel by water and land in and through the same. This was a very liberal provision in favour of trade. "It is true," says a writer of the last century, "that trade stands so fair in the esteem of an Englishman, and promises so many occasions either for raising or improving a fortune, that many younger sons and brothers of peers are frequently bred up to and embrace it, but they are too apt to quit it on succeeding to the dignities of their families. It is an unhappiness in regard of traffic, that many gentlemen who have been enriched by it, or their inheritors, frequently withdraw from it either to live in retirement, or by an advancement to honor and posts, change the tranquil and pleasurable mercantile employ for the more troublesome, though splendid one of grandeur and power."

In Italy, many of the princes two centuries ago were the principal merchants of their several states, and esteemed it no dishonour, as we are informed, to make their palaces serve as warehouses.

In Asia the kings themselves are sometimes wont to traffic with Europeans, either individually or through their ministers, and the same may be said of some of the African princes.

But let us proceed to our biography, and select a few characters. We begin with

1. JAMES COEUR.—This celebrated and remarkable man was a native of Bourges, in France. He was the son of a merchant who by skill and enterprise so extended his operations as to make the sum of his gain annually more than that of all the other merchants in the kingdom together. To follow the language of his biographer, Beawes, in the *Lex Mercatoria*, his commerce was extended in all the Mediterranean; he trafficked in Asia with the Turks or Persians, and the other subjects of the Sultan of Babylon, and in Afric with the Saracens.

It was by the city of Montpellier that he carried on so great a trade. He constructed in this town a magnificent *Exchange* for the merchants, and it is said that what was most admired in it were the basso relievos, in medallions, which ornamented the front, and which employed the idle curiosity of those whose faith in the philosophers stone remained unshaken. It was supposed that these were but enigmatical emblems

under which Coeur hid those mysteries of his life by means of which had been acquired his almost untold wealth.

This great merchant was made Grand Treasurer to Charles VII., but the elevation is said not at all to have interrupted his trade; and his lofty patriotism was exercised in appropriating from his vast treasures to the support of the realm whose exchequer had been exhausted by continual wars.

In effect, says Beawes, very soon the armies were only raised and maintained at the expense of this disinterested minister. He advised the conquest of Normandy, and he alone was at almost all the charge. When he went in embassies to Rome, a fleet of twelve ships, which accompanied him belonged to him entirely, and it was he that was at all the expense of fitting them out. In a word, after Charles had associated James Coeur in the government of the State, there was nothing in France that was great and considerable that was not supported by the credit of this sage and rich merchant, and wherein he did not employ the better part of the great effects that arose to him from his trade. All the *philosopher's stone* of this fortunate and able man consisted only in his great trade.

DE MEDICIS.—It was not until the beginning of the fifteenth century that this family, reserved to so great a fate, ought properly to count the epoch or era of its elevation; and it is to Cosmo de Medicis, that famous citizen of Florence, who so justly merited the name of *great*, Father of the People and Deliverer of his Country, that it is indebted for the first, or at least the most solid foundation of a grandeur which would be hardly creditable, did we not see, even to this day, 1722, their fortunate and illustrious posterity, governing with so much sagacity those same people who formerly owed their liberty to the courage and prudence of this first citizen of their republic. In fact, after this great man had, as may be said, given the jog to the wheel of fortune which was to raise his house so high, there were but very few dignities, honours, titles, or alliances by which the family were not illustrated; and in less than an age it gave four sovereign Pontiffs to the Church, two Queens to France, and to the Sacred College more celebrated subjects than any other house, even sovereign ones, had given to it until then.

It was, nevertheless, commerce only, that was the source of so much renown. The ancestors of Cosmo, following the custom of the nobility of Italy, had not any way neglected this resource to support them in the honours either of the camp or cabinet; but he, more fortunate or more intelligent, had made so large a fortune that he became even comparable to sovereigns for his riches, and he was always courted and re-

garded on account of the great credit which he preserved all his life in the affairs of Italy.

Lawrence, his brother, who, to the name of great, which he merited, as well as *Cosmo*, added that of father of letters, was so well known at the Porte, on account of the factors, which he maintained in all parts of the Levant, and of the great number of ships which he sent, that Bajazet, the fierce Ottoman Emperor, not only always regarded him as one of his allies, but even honoured him with the name of his friend.

All the other Medicis' who came after these two great men, and were, as they, elevated to the chief honours of their republic, had the wise policy to imitate them, and in no manner to deprive themselves, by the false delicacy of the utility of their trade; and when, in fine, the great qualities and merit of another Cosmo had raised his house to the sovereignty of Florence, neither he nor his successors thought it any way unworthy of them to seek, in an honourable marine trade, wherewithal to support with greater credit the splendour of the rank which in some sort was owing to it; and to this very day the palaces of the Grand Duke are neither shut to tradesmen or merchants, and it is not in the least surprising to see his ships arrive convoying those of his subjects loaded with rich merchandize, from the Levant and other places where the merchants of Livorno and Florence carry on so considerable a trade.*

3. ROSCOE.—This eminent man in all the extensive movements of trade, its perplexities and distractions, found yet the inclination and the leisure to cultivate all that was beautiful and noble in literature. The fame he has won can never be lost in the world while such monuments of it exists as the "*Life of Lorenzo de Medicis*" and "*Leo the Tenth.*" He was a partner in the Liverpool commercial house of Clark & Co., in the conduct of which his services were almost inappreciable. During this period he mourns bitterly to his friend, Dr. Parr:

"Must I open hereafter no books but journals and ledgers, and breathe no air but that of the town. Happily for me this is by no means the case; and though from the peculiar state of the business when I engaged in it, it has hitherto required my unremitting attention, yet I already see the probability, at no great distance of time, I may again enjoy some portion of those pleasures to which I supposed I had paid a last farewell. The daily routine of my business engagements does not appear so irksome as I had reason to expect."

* We have adopted altogether the language of Beaves in our allusion to this family. The house became extinct at last by the death of Gaston, the last Grand Duke of Florence, to whom the Duke of Lorraine succeeded, 1760.

In a letter to Lord Lansdowne, he says, "I have reason to flatter myself that in a very short while so close an attendance may be unnecessary, and that I may be enabled to devote some portion of my time to other pursuits."

In this fond wish he was soon gratified for a short period, and having received various valuable manuscripts from Florence, he set about the "*Life of Leo*," devoting the long winter evenings to it, after returning from the cares of business at the house in Liverpool.

Not long after this the partnership became involved in some of the difficulties so incident to the empire of trade, and it was found necessary to go into liquidation. At the request of all parties Mr. Roscoe again betook himself to the management of its affairs, being entrusted with the sole direction. During these distresses he was forced to yield up his effects, amongst the rest his costly and elegant library. In this matter he could not hesitate, as an honourable man, but in the sadness of his heart at such a privation his noble spirit breathed out its complaints in secret. The following lines written by him at the time, touchingly show this, and in introducing them we shall conclude the first number of our sketch:

"As one who destined from his friends to part,
 Regrets his loss yet hopes again erewhile,
 To share their converse and enjoy their smile,
 And tempers as he may afflictions dart:—
 Thus loved associates! chiefs of elder art!
 Teachers of wisdom! who could once beguile
 My tedious hours and lighten every toil!
 I now resign you; nor with fainting heart—
 For pass a few short years, or days, or hours,
 And happier seasons may their dawn unfold,
 And all your sacred fellowship restore.
 When freed from earth, unlimited its powers,
 Mind shall with mind direct communion hold,
 And kindred spirits meet to part no more."

ART. VIII.—RAILWAY SYSTEMS AND PROJECTS IN EUROPE AND AMERICA.

The revolution occasioned in the world by the application to purposes of land communication of the wondrous element of steam, has been equalled by no other which history records. Morally, socially, politically, and physically, society and man have received an impetus by it which have moved them distant, in a single generation, beyond the limits enthusiasm itself might have assigned for a century of progress. It has diminished labour, destroyed space, lengthened time, and created

a new world. It has done this,—but it has done nothing when we regard the contingent and the possible. Imagination and reason are baffled in their attempts to foresee all the consequences of an era ushered in upon us, and having as its active agents the all-powerful elements of coal and iron:

“The tract of ground” says Dr. Lardner “crossed by the Liverpool and Manchester railway, on which thousands of travellers are now daily transported at a speed varying from twenty-five to fifty miles an hour, just seventy-five years ago was travelled by Arthur Young, who has left us the following description of it: ‘I know not in the whole range of language terms sufficiently expressive to describe this infernal road. Let me most seriously caution all travellers who may accidentally propose to travel this terrible country, to avoid it as they would the devil; for a thousand to one they break their necks or their limbs by overthrows or breakings-down. They will here meet with ruts, which I actually measured, four feet deep, and floating with mud only from a wet summer. What, therefore, must it be after a winter? The only mending it receives is tumbling in some loose stones, which serve no other purpose than jolting a carriage in the most intolerable manner. These are not merely opinions, but facts; for I actually passed three carts broken down in these eighteen miles of execrable memory.’”

This celebrated road was opened in 1830, and Mr. Stephenson was smiled at for his folly, in hinting that twelve miles an hour might be attained on this road, with a loaded car! The speed a few years after, fell a little short of thirty. In 1840 there were thirteen hundred miles of English railways; in 1841, fifteen hundred; in 1845, twenty-four hundred; and eighteen hundred miles in 1845, and four thousand miles in 1846 additional chartered, requiring to construct, £200,000,000. The average cost of these roads, including land, machinery, &c., is over £35,000 per mile. The average fare on them, according to the different classes of accommodation, varied in 1845 from one shilling to two shillings and sixpence per mile; dividends five to ten per cent. The amount of service done in 1845 was equivalent to carrying five hundred million of persons one mile; or the work of fifty thousand stage horses.*

The first railroad constructions in Belgium were authorized in 1834. The whole amount in miles worked there in 1844, was three hundred and forty-eight, having cost per mile £16,600. The rate per mile for passage varying from a half-penny to near one penny only.

* For these and many other facts in the present Essay, we are indebted to an article in the last number of the *Edinburgh Review*, ascribed to Dr. Lardner.

In France, though several short roads had been previously constructed, the first great movement made was in 1842 by the government planning a system of roads radiating from Paris; the first to the Belgian line, with branches to Calais, for opening an expeditious route to England; a second line southward towards Spain; a third to Brest; a fourth to the Pyrennees; a fifth to Havre, &c., &c. In 1844, the number of miles in operation was five hundred and thirty-seven; in progress, eighteen hundred and thirty-seven; planned nine hundred and sixty-one; cost per mile, £21,000. At the end of 1846 the total length of working roads in France reached about one thousand miles. Passage per mile, from one to two-pence.

The German States have also been in motion, and according to Dr. Lardner they will ere long be overspread by one of the most magnificent systems of interior communication of which Europe can afford any example.

The following table exhibits the results of the railroad revolution in the Austrian dominions:

	Total length. miles.	Complete and open for commerce. miles.
* Vienna to Trieste, (finished to Gratz.) - - - - -	335	148
Northern Line; - - - - -	497	190
Vienna to frontier of Bavaria, - - - - -	194	16
Eastern Line, - - - - -	311	84
Venice to Milan, - - - - -	190	19
Vienna to Tirnan, by Presburg, - - - - -	51	51
Grunden to Prague by Lintz and Budweis, - - - - -	286	156
Budweis to Prague, - - - - -	71	—
Total, - - - - -	1935	664

In Prussia, the length of the roads in progress is considerably over a thousand miles; and in operation about seven hundred, having cost £9,400 per mile.

The whole system of Germanic roads in construction, throughout all the States, is estimated in length at seven thousand six hundred miles, of which at the close of 1845, four thousand seven hundred and sixty miles were in operation. Cost per mile, £8,000.

The Czar of Russia has projected several great lines; one from St. Petersburg to Warsaw and Cracow, thus opening his dominions upon southern Europe; a second route extends to Moscow; a third to Odessa; a fourth to connect the Volga and Duma; and the whole to be in length sixteen hundred miles.

Denmark, Holland and Switzerland have entered upon similar enterprises; Portugal and Italy have done little; Spain only in her Cuba road; and Sweden nothing at all.

In the United States,—but before proceeding to this pregnant field of investigation, let us introduce a few observations upon the relative velocity and safety of railroad communication. We rely again upon the authority of the Edinburgh Review.

In the four years preceding 1839 the number of passengers on the Belgian roads was over six and a half millions; the number of persons killed 15; number of wounded 16,—only five of whom were passengers. In 1842 the number of passengers was 2,716,000, three only killed, one a suicide and the other crossing the track. In the first six months of 1843, 1,889,718 passengers were carried 316,945 miles over French lines *without the injury of a single one!* During the year 1844, in Paris alone, there were killed by horse coaches 74 persons, and 2,073 wounded. In England, the proportion of persons injured to those carried upon railroads, was in 1840, 1 in 39,000; in 1841, 1 in 213,000; in 1842, 1 in 1,124,000; in 1843, 1 in 4,262,087; in 1844, 1 in 356,700; in 1845, 1 in 522,000.

The average speed of travelling on the English passenger railways is much greater in England than in the United States, as will appear from the following table:

<i>Name of Railway.</i>	<i>Distance.</i>	<i>Time.</i>	<i>Rate per hour.</i>
GREAT WESTERN.			
Paddington to Didcot,	53	1h. 7m.	47 5 miles.
Didcot to Swindon,	24	35	41 stoppage.
Swindon to Bath,	29	37	48 2 no stop.
Bath to Bristol,	11.5	20	34 5 stoppage.
Bristol to Daunton,	44.75	58	46 3 “
Daunton to Exeter,	30.75	47	39 2 “

The velocity of sixty miles per hour has frequently been attained, and it is within the reach of probability, and indeed not contradicted by any of the conditions of science, that one hundred and even two hundred miles per hour may be ultimately realized.

“The ordinary speed in the United States,” says Dr. Lardner, “stoppages included, is fourteen or fifteen miles an hour. Independently of other considerations, the light structure of most of the railways would not allow of a greater velocity without considerable danger: on some of the better constructed lines, we have, however, frequently travelled at the rate of twenty-five miles an hour, when at full speed. This is not uncommon on some of the New England lines,—on the railways from Baltimore to Washington, and some of the southern lines; as for example that between Charleston and Augusta, in Georgia, the Columbia line in South Carolina, and the line from Augusta to the University of Athens, in Georgia.”

The first railroad constructed in the United States was completed in 1825. "On the first of January 1829" says the American Railroad Journal "there was not a railroad in operation upon which locomotive engines were successfully used as the propelling power,—and it was not until October, 1829, that this power was brought to anything like a successful application; and even then *twenty tons* on a *level* road at *ten miles* an hour, was the extent of the requirements of those who were in advance of the age in such matters! And even this degree of confidence in their power was confined to a very few persons in England; while in all Europe beside, and, with here and there an exception, in *this* country, they were as little thought of as the *Magnetic Telegraph* in 1840! and yet, at this date, a locomotive, even of America manufacture, which will haul from a *thousand* to *twelve hundred tons* on a level road, at the same speed, is no uncommon machine!!!" On the first of January, 1835, the roads completed or in progress, reached sixteen hundred miles, at a cost of \$30,000,000, and the average cost per mile has varied to this day from eight to forty thousand dollars. We extract the following passages from the essay by Dr. Lardner, who, it will be remembered, travelled very generally in our country a few years ago, on a scientific and very profitable tour:

"The total length of railway now actually constructed and in operation in the United States, amounts to about 4,500 miles, of which 500 miles consist of short lines, connected with coal works and private establishments;—leaving about 4,000 miles of swift steam conveyance, by railway, for passengers and merchandize. Besides this, there are about 10,000 miles projected, the construction of most of which has been suspended, since the financial and monetary revolutions which took place some years since. Of the railways completed and in operation, the chief part are in the Atlantic States. A few short lines, however, have been constructed in the south and west. Thus there are seven railways in Alabama, four in Florida, ten in Louisiana and five in Mississippi.

"Pennsylvania, New York, and the States of New England, are the great theatres of American railway enterprise. The State of Pennsylvania is intersected by nearly a thousand miles of railway, and an equal length is in operation, or process of construction, in the State of New York. The New England States are in every direction intersected by railways. Boston is connected towards the west with the Hudson, at Albany, by a continuous line. It is connected, towards the south with Long Island Sound, by lines to Providence and Stonington, and to Worcester and New London. The communication is carried on from these points to New York, both by railway over Long Island and by steamboats on the Sound and the East River.

"From the Hudson, there is an unbroken line of railway communication to the great northern lakes. By these and the Illinois river, the communication is continued by steamboats nearly to the banks of

the Upper Mississippi, where it is continued for some thousand miles westward by the Missouri towards the Rocky Mountains; and southward by the Lower Mississippi to New Orleans and the Gulf of Mexico.

"Another artery of railway communication proceeds from New York southwards—traversing the States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina,—and turning westward through Georgia, terminates near the banks of the Alabama river; there the line is continued by steamboats to the north of that river, and thence to Lake Pontchartrain, where it meets a line of railway which terminates finally at New Orleans. The entire territory of the Union is thus enclosed in an uninterrupted circle of steam communication.

"Nor are great transverse arteries wanting to complete the interfusion of the commerce of the country. From the artery running north and south just mentioned, there issues a lateral branch at Baltimore, proceeding westward towards the Alleghany range. At present this is continued only as far as Cumberland—at the foot of the ridge which is from that point crossed by an excellent Macadamized road, on which stage coaches work at a speed equal to the best English coach travelling. It is, however, intended to supersede this road by a continuation of the railway to Wheeling and Pittsburg on the Ohio. Thence the communication is carried on by steamboats on that river, to the point where its waters are received by the Mississippi.

"We have here traced the great main arteries of the internal commerce of the United States, but these only. From these at every other point diverge innumerable ramifications, either by tributary navigable rivers, by branch railways, or by common roads.

"There are also isolated instances of the irrepressible spirit of enterprise, which so strongly characterizes this people, to be bound in railways constructed and in operation, where the highest refinements of locomotion would be the last thing the wanderer of the wilds would expect to meet. In the backwoods of Mississippi, traversing native forests where, till within a few years, human foot never trod, through solitudes the silence of which never was disturbed, even by the Red man, we are now transported on railways. The impression produced on the traveller as he is whirled through these wilds, and sees the frightened deer start from its lair at the snorting of the ponderous machine which moves him, and reflects on all that man has accomplished in these regions within half a century, cannot be described."

In the space to which we are restricted in this article, it will be impossible to remark, as we would wish, upon each of the individual branches that make up the great system of American railways. The interior and the sea coast are made as one by them, and we regard as little the two thousand miles that separate Texas from Canada, as our grandfathers did the journey to market town, or county court.

We have searched in vain for a complete list, to date, of all the railroad works in operation, in construction, and in contemplation among

us. It has, however, been promised by the New York Railroad Journal, and will, perhaps, be in time for our next number.

There are, yet, some observations which we should like to make now, in relation to the efforts in progress, to connect the south and the west together; and the west, again with that almost *terra incognita* which sweeps to the base of the Rocky Mountains, on bothsides, from the Mississippi river and from the Pacific.

As early as 1828, Mr. Elliott, of South Carolina, when discussing the various projects of canal communication between the valley and the northern sea board, used in the old Quarterly Review, this remarkable and almost prophetic language:

"While this project, the New York canal, has been pressed upon the public attention by the united exertions of great talents, a lofty public spirit, strong private interests and ardent zeal; while it has been supposed that the commerce of the west in its mighty efforts to reach the shores of the Atlantic, would ascend the opposing current of the Ohio, perhaps also of the Monongahela, traverse the summits of the Alleghany and the parallel chains of contiguous mountains, expose itself to the delays of three hundred and ninety-eight locks, and the possible, if not probable want of water in the summit levels, rejoicing still in such an access to an Atlantic market; other routes, far more direct and practicable, have been overlooked, because they are situated some degrees farther to the south, and, perhaps, because they would lead this commerce into channels, that those who influence the arrangements of the government, did not wish that it should pursue.

"Let us take one instance only, as an illustration. From the mouth of the Tennessee river to Florence, just below the Muscle Shoals, where the steamboat navigation now terminates, the ascending voyage consumes from two to three days. From the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi to the mouth of the Tennessee, scarcely one. From Florence, a railroad of three hundred and forty miles, without having to encounter any interposing mountains, or cross any fordable streams, will reach Augusta. From Augusta, Savannah is distant one hundred and twenty, Charleston one hundred and forty miles. Thus, then, the products of the western country, whether descending the White river or the mighty stream of the Missouri, whether floating along the current of the Mississippi or its tributary branches, many of them noble rivers, and like the Illinois, flowing through territories of exuberant and inexhaustible fertility; whether descending along the stream of the Ohio itself, or any of its secondary waters, will only have to pause in their descending progress, turn against the current of the Tennessee for two or three days, and then in forty or sixty hours, according to the rate at which carriages shall be made to travel, may be placed in Augusta, on navigable water flowing into the Atlantic, or in another day, on continued railroads, may be delivered in Charleston or Savannah, in Atlantic ports possessing every advantage that mercantile enterprise may require. Six days, therefore, of uninterrupted travelling may take produce from the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi to the shores of

the Atlantic; in five days a return cargo may be delivered at the same point. It appears to us, that no one position on the Atlantic shore of the United States offers equal advantages to the commerce of the western country,—to that commerce we mean which will embrace, and is connected with, all the waters of the Mississippi and its branches, to the north of the Arkansas.”*

Georgia and South Carolina are both struggling to realize this vision, and to bring to Savannah and Charleston all the advantages which a connection with the great West must afford. The latter State is moving in one direction towards her mountains, and the produce of Tennessee and Kentucky, which may be there attracted and brought through Columbia to the sea-board; and the two States, by different lines, and in co-operation, are directing their efforts towards Memphis, Nashville, and the mouth of the Ohio. One of the objects of the great Memphis convention was the discussion of these routes, and in his able report Col. Gadsden made this lucid explanation:

“The main track of road from the sea-board, passes along its whole line, through a mild parallel of latitude, not interrupted by the floods of spring, or by the ice and snows of winter. With the projected branches, it intersects the cotton growing regions of Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee and Mississippi. It demonstrates, in one direction, on East Tennessee, the Switzerland of America, and on the western valley of Virginia, beckoning to the Ancient Dominion to participate in the enterprise, and on many interior districts, rich in agricultural and mineral resources, but so secluded from all avenues of communication with markets, as to remain undeveloped.

“These roads locate their own highways of interior trade, as they

* From the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi, the distance (calculated from one of Tanner's maps) to different points on the sea-coast, is as follows:

To Savannah,	- - - - -	525 miles.
Charleston,	- - - - -	551
Richmond,	- - - - -	596
Washington,	- - - - -	660
Baltimore,	- - - - -	687
Philadelphia,	- - - - -	780

The route from Florence to Augusta would pass some distance south of the termination of the Alleghany mountains, and cross the Coosa, Talapoosa, and Chatahoochie, while they are yet near their sources. It would run through a fertile, healthy, and, where not occupied by the Indians, a populous country. All other routes to the Atlantic coast, excepting one further to the south, would cross many ridges of mountains, where roads could only be opened at great expense. In times of peace, this outlet to the western commerce may be considered as comparatively unimportant, the great bulk of it will undoubtedly float along its natural and noble channel. But in war, when the mouth of a single river, nay, even the Gulf of Mexico itself, can be easily closed by a naval power, such an access to the Atlantic coast may become of immense value.

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originate the business that sustains them, and at the various *termini* proposed, they bring into intimate connection the ancient cities of Charleston and Augusta, with the modern cities of Macon, Knoxville, and Nashville, and perhaps in the event, Mobile and New Orleans, with Natchez, Grand Gulf, Vicksburg, and the modern Memphis of the American Nile; a new city, but so imposing in its midway position and its commercial relations as already to number 10,000 inhabitants, and so accessible to steamers as to have attracted the attention of the general government as a suitable site for a naval depot.*

The city of Mobile has lately evinced a strong disposition to partake of those advantages which her neighbors enjoy or have in prospect, and thus receive an impetus in her prosperity, which has of late appeared to be at a stand; or at that critical point which immediately precedes a decline. A large meeting of the citizens was held and committees appointed to report upon the practicability of a route from the city, through the heart of the cotton regions of Mississippi and West Tennessee to the mouth of the Ohio river. The country is rich in every section and of a surface admirably adapted to railroad communication. Scarce one single impediment of an important nature presents itself. The distance is estimated at four hundred miles, and the cost between five and six millions of dollars. Whether this amount, which is regarded as necessary for the salvation of Mobile can be obtained, we have not the necessary information to decide. The work, however, would be a grand one, and worthy the enterprise of any people.

In Louisiana there are several railroads in contemplation and in construction. The Mexican Gulf must be regarded as of the most importance, and it is likely that the connexion with the harbor at Cat Island will be completed before long. The reader will see some particulars of this enterprise, on the 108th page of the present number of the Review, and in a late article in the *London Times* from which we make this extract:

"The object of this improvement is to avoid crossing the bar at the mouth of the river, the Balize, and also to avoid a tedious and winding voyage of ninety miles from Balize to New Orleans, by forming a railway from the city of New Orleans to Cat Island Harbor, a fine, well sheltered anchorage, which has recently been discovered at the entrance of Lake Borgne, forty-six miles east of New Orleans. There is depth of water in this harbor for ships of war to victual and refit; for steamers of the size of those of the West India line to enter at all times; and for large merchant vessels to take in full cargoes of grain and other heavy goods, none of which things are practical at the present harbor of New Orleans.

* See Commercial Review for January 1846.

The greatest advantage of this plan probably is, that it will render it possible to extend all the advantages of the safe and rapid mode of communication between England and America, furnished by the West India mail steamers to the whole Valley of the Mississippi, as well as to Mobile and other parts of the cotton-growing States in the Gulf of Mexico. At present these vast regions furnish 1,000,000 bales of cotton every year, at a very moderate computation, worth £5,000,000 sterling, and they are likely in future to supply us with grain, flour, provisions, and tobacco, to a still greater extent. This immense trade is every year creating an increase in the personal and epistolary communication between England and New Orleans, and there can be no doubt that it would be much facilitated and greatly increased, if the West Indian steamers could proceed to New Orleans. At present this is impossible, as they draw too much water to cross the bar, and are, therefore, unable to approach nearer than 110 miles of the city, to a point without a harbor or a road to New Orleans. They have, in consequence, given up calling at that point, after attempting twice, and thus the people in the great valley of the West are deprived of the advantages of this cheap and rapid route to Europe, and the company is deprived of the profit of carrying them. When the railroad is completed to Cat Island Harbor, the steamers will be able to approach within a couple of hours' ride of New Orleans, and ten hours' sail of Mobile, and to lie there in a well-sheltered harbour, in deep water."

A railroad was projected several years ago in Louisiana from Point Coupé to Opelousas. The subject has been lately revived and we cannot question that the enterprise would be found most profitable to the State. Another route was projected in 1837 from the Mississippi to Alexandria, a paper upon which, lately prepared by Professor Forshey, shows that the route would be from Vicksburg, opposite Natchez to the mouth of the Tensas river 26 miles, thence from Trinity the opposite side of that river, on to Alexandria, 55 miles more, and having crossed the Red River onward perhaps to Bayou Cotile, 20 miles; whole distance 101 miles, estimated to cost \$857,250.* From Bayou Cotile the distance to the Sabine is but 54 miles. If it were found desirable, as there is little question that it will, ere long, in the progress of our institutions, and in the increasing wealth and prosperity of our South-western regions, this road would have an easy and practicable extension to the Rio Grande, thus reaching the extremest limit claimed for the territory of our country in that direction. From Natchez to the Rio Grande the distance does not exceed 620 miles. Such an enterprise suggests the still further and more glittering prize of a *Southern communication through California to the Pacific Ocean*, the distance from the Rio Grand to Mazatlan, at the mouth of the Gulf of California, being only about 450 miles! We regard this last as infinitely more

* See Commercial Review, March, 1846.

practical, desirable and within the reach of our country, than that proposed by Mr. Whitney, from Lake Michigan, through cold and mountains, 2600 miles to the mouth of the Columbia River.*

But as we here trench upon the limits of a question so vast, and as we have collected we see by reference to our papers, a large quantity of material, some of the most valuable kind, for an article, we have deemed it best not to extend this too much, but to postpone as a whole for some other number of the Review, the connection of the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans, and the centralization of the trade of both in the North American States.

* E. H. Derby, Esq., in the November number of the Rail Road Journal, has contributed a valuable paper upon this route, from which we would extract the following:

"A superior route from the Atlantic to the Pacific, follows as near as may be, the tropic of Cancer across the continent. This line protracted, sweeps by the southern capes of the two great peninsulas, Florida and California, and crosses the American continent at a point where it is less than 480 miles in width; a distance just adequate to surmount the table land by a railroad with moderate grades.

"The tropic of Cancer passes nearly over the Havana, strikes the coast of Mexico a little to the north of Tampico, crosses the northern provinces between Zacatecas, Chihuahua, thence nearly over Mazatlan, a sea port on the Pacific much resorted to by our ships of war, thence passes over the Sandwich Islands, the great resort of our whale ships, and proceeding westward between Manilla and the Japan islands, strikes China close to its principal entrepot, the great city of Canton. The route would be nearly direct from *New Orleans to Canton*.

"Assuming that the length of a railroad would exceed the air line twenty-five per cent. the whole length of the proposed line would not exceed 600 miles; and assuming the same cost per mile allowed for Whitney's road, or \$30,000, the entire cost would not exceed \$18,000,000, or less than one-fifth the cost of the Whitney railroad.

"The charge for freight at the rate conceded to the Whitney railroad, would be \$9 per ton. Assuming an average freight from New Orleans to the eastern terminus of \$2 50 per ton, and a freight of \$16 per ton from Mazatlan to Canton, and we have an aggregate freight of \$27 50 per ton from New Orleans to Canton in place of \$60 by the Whitney road, from the Atlantic coast to Canton. The average freight between New Orleans and Europe does not materially vary from \$10 per ton; outward it is more, and inward materially less, as ships often return in ballast. If we add this to the \$27 50, we have an aggregate of \$37 50 between China and Europe.

"At this rate a large portion of the trade between Europe and China, California, Oregon and Peru, induced by the saving of time and insurance, must eventually take this course, while the major part of the commerce between the United States, the British Provinces, West Indies, and South America on the one side, and China, Manilla, Chili, Peru, California, and Oregon must fall into this channel.—By the route proposed, a passenger taking steam at New Orleans, may in four days reach Tampico or New Santander, in two more Mazatlan and by steam packets, Canton in thirty-four more, in all forty days. Starting from St. Louis, the future centre of the west, four days carries him to New Orleans. And before the proposed line can be finished the completion of a chain of railroads must bring Boston the gateway to Europe, within five and perhaps four days to New Orleans.

"From Mazatlan to San Francisco a line of steam packets may convey a passenger in five days, so that the weary emigrant, who is now from May to October, on his journey to California, may in fifteen days from St. Louis, reach the land of promise.

"Another effect of the line would be an easy access to Chihuahua and Zacate-

cas, reputed to be the richest mining districts of Mexico and open an inlet for our manufactures into the heart of Mexico itself, by the great inland road, along the table land from Monterey to Mexico, a connection which would doubtless, repay us for all the expenses of the present war.

"Another advantage, common however, to both lines would be secured. American ships now excluded from the direct trade between China and most countries in Europe, could transport goods between China and the western terminus of the railroad, and thus command a vast freighting business.

"The route suggested might commence either at Tampico, Santander, or Brazos Santiago, as the face of the country should prove most inviting, or the greatest facilities exist for forming a good harbor, and in case the country south of Chihuahua should in the settlement with Mexico, be released to that country, a route a little longer, but possessing most of the advantages of that proposed, might be opened from Corpus Christi or Aransas to Guyamas one of the most eligible ports on the Pacific.

"In addition to this, if the railroad of Mr. Whitney can be built with the proceeds from the contiguous land, the territory on the borders of this route may be made to contribute to the cost without impairing the fund flowing from our public sales."

Art. IX.—THE POST SYSTEM.*

Our government furnishes very few blessings like our *MAILS*. They bear from the centre of the republic to the distant extremes, the acts of our legislative bodies, the decisions of the judiciary and the orders of the executive. They are charged with the letters of relatives and friends, preserving a communion of heart between those far separated, and the indulgence of the most pure and refined pleasures of our existence—of commercial men, stating the condition of the markets, preventing ruinous and gambling speculations, and promoting general as well as individual interests; they convey innumerable religious letters, newspapers, magazines and tracts, which reach almost every house throughout this wide republic.—REPORT OF RICHARD M. JOHNSON ON THE TRANSPORTATION OF THE *MAILS*, 1830.

The *POST OFFICE* is properly a mercantile project. The government advances the expense of establishing the different offices and of buying or hiring the necessary horses or carriages, and is repaid with a large profit by the duties upon what is carried.—SMITH'S *WEALTH OF NATIONS*.

The institution of *Posts* is one which appeals to us with the force of necessity. By its extent and character, we can in a certain degree measure the commerce of a nation and assure ourselves of its literary taste and proficiencies. The intercourse of friendship is accelerated by its action, and kindred spirits are brought measurably in near connexion with each other.

Time, that effects more revolutions in a day, than have all the conquerors who played their parts with various success upon the theatre of human action, from the Great Alexander, sighing in the intolerant vanity of his heart for new worlds to conquer, down to that "throneless homicide" who drenched the earth with human blood, has not left unmarked upon this establishment the determined impress of his touch. System

* Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce*.

Rees' *Cyclopædia*, Vol. 29.

Encyclopædia Americana, Vol. 10.

Ellis' *Laws and Regulations of the Customs*.

Report of Geo. Plitt, special agent of the P. O. Department.

has succeeded to system, and in the progressive ingenuity of one age there was the warrant of a principle of improvement transmitted in active force to another. Thus has the world in this, as in all other things, attained to the position it now occupies.

The name of Posts is said to be derived from the Latin *positus*, as horses were placed at certain distances with the view of transmitting letters or travellers. It is a presumption among the learned, that the first Posts were established in the Persian Empire. Darius I, son of Hy-staspes, caused couriers to stand ready with saddled horses at different stations throughout the Empire in order that he might receive reports from the provinces without delay. The distances by which they were separated were about one day's journey.

One of the most important steps taken by Cyrus when he had subjugated the kingdom of Babylon, was to create an establishment similar to our modern Posts by which the most speedy intelligence was conveyed throughout the whole extent of his vast Empire. Between Sardis, the capital of Lydia, and Lusa, the residence of the Persian King, there are computed to have been one hundred and eleven houses. The distance of the road has been estimated at 13,400 Greek stadia, nearly equal to 1340 geographical miles. From the errors of transcribers, however, as appears from a note to Macpherson, there is some apparent disagreement upon this point, and commentators have consequently been much puzzled in reconciling the remote distances by which the houses were separated. We may regard the inference which has resulted, that some of the stages are evidently omitted, as a legitimate one, though we may not conceive fully the advantages resulting from the fact as conducing to any very important end.

ITALY appears to have been the cradle of the system of Posts. Constituted principally with the view of obtaining intelligence from the army, under the Emperor Augustus it was in the most flourishing condition, and the couriers employed were remarkable for their extraordinary swiftness. Despatches from Slavonia were received by Augustus in four days, and Tiberius is said to have indignantly thrown away all despatches that were more than twenty days from Asia, fifteen from Europe, ten from Africa, five from Slavonia, and three from any part of Italy. Such was the expedition to which the ancients were accustomed. The privacy of letters was so much respected, that the breaking of a seal was, by the criminal code of Milan, punished with death.

During the ninth century, messengers who traveled on horseback existed in Germany, France and Italy, devoted exclusively to the government service. The establishment, however, seems to have been of but short duration.

In the East carrier pigeons are used. They became known in Europe through the Crusaders, but seem never to have been introduced to any extent in more recent years. The carrier pigeon is a native of the East. An actual Post system, says Leiber, was established by the Sultan Mouredden Mahmood, who died in 1174, in which pigeons were the messengers. It was extended and improved by the Caliph Ahmed Abraser-Lidiv-Allah of Bagdad, who died in 1225. When that city fell into the hands of the Mongols in 1258, this flying post was destroyed by them. The manner of using them is by placing a particular kind of silk paper, called *bird paper*, lengthwise under one wing, and fastened with a pin to a feather, the point of the pin being turned from the body. They have been known to accomplish a distance of upwards of one thousand parasangs, more than 2700 English miles in a day. According to the elder Pliny, Decius Brutus sent despatches from Modena by pigeons. They were in much later times employed by the merchants of Paris and Amsterdam to convey the course of Exchange and the prices of stocks from one city to the other. And in our day, the velocity of their movements have much anticipated those of the steam engine.

Part of the Post system of the Great Mogul is conducted by means of pigeons. They are kept in several places for the conveyance of letters on extraordinary occasions, and they carry them from one end of that immense Empire to another. The Dutch within Seizes have resorted to the same vehicles. The Consul at Alexandretta is said by Tavernier to have been accustomed to send news daily to Aleppo in five hours time by means of pigeons, though these two places are three days journey apart on horse back.

Pedestrian messengers were maintained by the University of Paris in the beginning of the thirteenth century, who, at certain times, took charge of money and letters for the students, collected in that city from almost all parts of Europe.

Posts, upon the authority of Lewis Hornick, were first settled in Germany by the Count de Taxis, at his own expense, in acknowledgment of which the Emperor Mathias in 1616 gave him in fief, the charge of Postmaster under him and his successors. This point, however, is not very clearly established.

In 1295, throughout Cambula in the province of Carthay, two days journey from the ocean, inns were established at proper distances, where horses, provisions and lodging were kept for the Khan's ambassadors and messengers, and ferry boats were stationed also at the rivers and lakes. By these means letters were conveyed at the rate of from 200 to 250 miles in a day.

On the road from Cusco to Quito messengers were found placed at short distances from each other, when the Spaniards discovered Peru in 1527. The orders of the Inca were transmitted by them with remarkable speed.

About 1740 the Turks commenced the establishment of Posts after the manner of Christendom, throughout their entire dominions. It was generally expected that they would operate very advantageously to their commerce, independent of the large addition which would be made to the Sultan's revenue, which, in consequence of the late wars with Russia, had become greatly impaired. We see very clearly, therefore, that in an age far removed from the one in which we live, the benefits to be derived from this system judiciously administered had forcibly impressed themselves upon the minds of all people of all nations. Indeed, it is difficult to conceive a state of society in which an approach to civilization and refinement will not originate an establishment like this. Mr. Ellis, in his "Polynesian Researches," says, that though the natives of the Sandwich Islands have not so far advanced in civilization as to have a regular Post, a native seldom makes a journey across the Island, and scarcely a canoe passes from one Island to another without conveying a number of letters.

The system of Posts in England has attained to a very great perfection, and it is remarkable to observe the many changes through which it has passed from its infancy, so far as we have been instructed to the present time. King Edward introduced an establishment of riders with post horses, to be changed every twenty miles during the war with Scotland in 1480. By handing letters and packets from one to another, they were forwarded 200 miles in the course of two days, apparently the farthest extent of the establishment. This mode of conveyance was taken from one France had adopted a short time previously, neither of which tended to the public accommodation, or had any connection with commerce. We can only regard them, therefore, as the rudiments of an establishment, constituting as it has been well said, the most essential accommodation ever given to commerce and friendly intercourse.

It may not be uninteresting to many of our readers to trace the gradual growth and extension of this branch of the public service in a country like England where, as is clearly evident, it has been carried to as high a state of perfection as in any other country on the face of the globe. Considerations of economy have always failed to exercise the same influence with the English nation, when opposed to great national objects, to which, in our country, it seems the bent and policy

of the people to give them. Republican simplicity is not at variance with grand designs, conceived for the general benefit, and tending to the establishment of a great national end.

In 1631 Wm. Frizell and others obtained a grant of the office of Postmaster for foreign parts in reversion. King James, it would appear, had previously erected this office, but previous to this appointment private undertakers only conveyed letters to and from foreign parts. Subsequently, however, it was strictly enjoined that none but the foreign Postmasters would presume to exercise any part of that office.

A running Post was established by King Charles in 1635 between London and Edinburgh, to go and come in six days, and to take all such letters as should be directed to any Post town, in or near the road. Bye-Posts were also required to be placed at different points to bring in and carry out letters from Lincoln, Hull and other places. The postage was fixed at 2*d.* the single letter, if under 80 miles, 4*d.* between 80 and 140 miles, 6*d.* if above 140 miles, and upon the borders of Scotland and in Scotland, 8*d.*, and proportionably for double letters and packets. Unless to such places as the King's Post did not go, messengers were not permitted to carry letters, except such as were common known carriers with a letter to a friend.

Notwithstanding King Charles' proclamation, letter carriers appear to have been still in use in 1637 between England and France. An agreement was formed between the heads of these two nations by which the route was made from Dover to Calais, and thence to Paris by Bologne, Abbeville and Amiens. All private Posts were prohibited, and a renewal made of the former declaration of the several rates of postage as exhibited under the year 1635.

The postage of England, Ireland and Scotland, was farmed by the Council of State to John Manley, Esq., in 1652, for £10,000 yearly. Under this settlement the rate of postage varied but slightly from that of 1635.

A new General Post Office for the Commonwealth of the three Kingdoms was erected by the Protector and his Parliament in 1656. The regulations by which it was governed were confirmed at the restoration of Charles the Second.

By act of Parliament in 1660, the rates of postage for England and Ireland were slightly modified. The revenue for the year amounted to £21,500.

In 1676, Sir William Petty, considered to have been well versed in

the theory of commerce, is said to have written his political arithmetic. In his remarks upon the system of Posts, he computes the postage of letters from the year 1636 to 1676 as having increased from one to twenty. "The very postage of letters costs the people," he says, "£50,000 per annum, farmed at much less."

The penny Post was established in London and its suburbs about 1683, by a man whom history has handed down to us as an upholsterer by trade, named Murray, who afterwards assigned it to one Dockwra, who carried it on successfully for a number of years, till a claim was laid to it by the government as interfering with the General Post Office which was part of the crown revenue. Dockwra, in consequence, had a yearly pension of £200 settled on him for life.*

In 1685 the revenue of the General Post Office, estimated at £65,000 per annum, was settled by the Parliament upon James the Second, to be his private estate, and never to be accounted for by him as is the case with all public revenues.

We have noticed thus far the regular increase of the revenue derived from this source, and the farther we advance the more rapid will its growth and development be made to appear. In a printed letter to a member of Parliament concerning the debts of the nation published in 1701, the nett revenue of the Post Office for the year 1699 is said to have been £90,504 10s. 6d. It was still at this time a part of the King's private revenue.

The correspondence of Scotland was found unable at this time to support itself, and King William in consequence made a grant of the whole revenue to Sir William Sinclair, with a pension of £300 a year. Finding it to operate disadvantageously to his interest, Sir William gave up the grant. The revenue arising to the government became soon after, however, very considerable.

One General Post Office, as well as one General Postmaster, was appointed for the United Kingdom in 1711, and all former laws repealed. The chief letter offices were located at Dublin, Edinburgh, New York and the West Indies. The postage on letters was increased, and the revenue, including the penny Post, amounted to £111,461 17s. 10d.

* A writer in Rees' Cyclopædia, Vol. 29, Art. "Post," says, "The penny Post was first set up in London in or about the year 1683 by a private undertaker, to whose assigns government allowed a yearly pension of £200 a year for life in lieu of the revenue arising from it."

Eleven years after this, from an abstract of the public debts, by Archibald Hutcheson, Esq., it appears that,

The gross amount of the P. O. annual revenue, was £201,804 1. 8.

To be deducted for frank covers to

letters, - - - - £33,397 12. 3.

Expense of management, - 70,396 1. 5.

£103,793 13. 8

Nett produce for 1722, - - - - £98,010 8. 0.

Up to this time members of Parliament and other privileged persons were accustomed to frank letters by signing their names on the corners of blank covers. To this manner of franking there seems to have been many objections, apart from its being subject to forgery. Of one fact there appears to be no doubt, that the revenues of the office were greatly injured from its operation. It was discovered, among other things, that the servants of members would solicit and receive from their masters large quantities of these franks, and would then dispose of them to persons who made a business of openly selling them in the streets. It was, therefore, enacted, that after the first of May, 1764, "no letters should be exempted from postage but such as not exceeded 2 oz. in weight, sent to any part of Great Britain or Ireland *during the session of Parliament*, or within forty days before or forty days after, any summons or prorogation of the same, *the whole* of the superscription being in the hand writing of a member of the House of Lords or Commons." The forgery of franks was, by the same act, rendered punishable by transportation for seven years.

The postage of franked letters, on an average of several years, was equal to £170,000 a year, as appeared from an examination previous to the passage of this act. Under the new regulation a great portion of this large amount was added to the revenue. The gross revenue of the Post Office this year amounted to £281,535. As we have seen, it was farmed in the year 1664 for £21,500; and twenty years earlier it was estimated at only £5,000. The increase of commerce and the increased facility and despatch in the conveyance of letters, necessarily promoted the increase of correspondence.

The rates of postage were increased in 1765 and ships bringing letters were obliged to deliver them at the Post Office. The Postmaster General was empowered to establish penny posts in any part of the kingdom he thought proper, and it was made felony to be found guilty of the embezzlement of letters, or of committing a robbery upon the mail.

In March 1784 the Irish Post Office became independent of that of Great Britain, and regulations were consequently entered into between them with regard to the conveyance of letters, newspapers, &c., and for the settlement of accounts between the two offices.

Mr. Palmer suggested an improvement in franking this year which met with much favor and was almost immediately acted upon. It was this: That Members of Parliament and others entitled to the franking privilege, should not only write the whole address, but should also place upon the back of the letter the Post Town from which the letter was sent and the date written in words with the member's name, with the view of its being charged with regular postage, if placed in the office on any other day.

The Diligences between Bath and London ran the distance about this time in seventeen hours, while the regular Post consumed about forty. The roads had been improved but with no corresponding augmentation in the speed with which the mail was conveyed. As is natural in all such cases, where there is such a difference in point of despatch, there were frequent evasions of the law, and large numbers of letters were sent by these conveyances by giving them the form of small parcels.

The first Mail Coach started from the Post Office at London for Bristol on the 2d August 1784. Mr. Palmer the Comptroller General of the Post Office, conceived the idea of forming a contract with the proprietors of coaches by which the mail should be delivered in a certain stipulated time, they being exempt from the payment of tolls on the road. By this as well as other very important improvements in the internal economy of the Post Office, the revenue was greatly increased and the public much better served.

In May 1795 the privilege of franking was further restricted. It was enacted that "no free letter should exceed one oz. weight to or from any member of either House of Parliament, all letters to be written within twenty miles of the Post Office and therein deposited on the day marked on it, or the succeeding day. No member shall send more than *ten* or receive more than *fifteen* letters free from postage on any one day."

The acts establishing the rates of postage were repealed in 1796, and the following rates were fixed for single letters carried by the Post in England and Wales:

For a distance not exceeding 15 miles,	-	-	-	3 pence
Above 15 and not exceeding 30 "	-	-	-	4 "
Above 30 and not exceeding 60 "	-	-	-	5 "

Above 60 and not exceeding 100 miles	- - 6 pence
Above 100 and not exceeding 150 "	- - 7 "
Above 150 miles	- - 8 "
An addition of one penny was laid on all postages in Scotland.	
Single letters by the packet to Lisbon,	} One shilling.
Do. to the British dominions in America,	

In order that it may be seen at a glance what has been the progress and condition of this branch of the British revenue up to the period at which we have arrived, we have deemed it useful to subjoin the following retrospect, presenting as it does in a single view all that has been previously elaborated; showing the extent of the national correspondence, of which Mr. Anderson says the Post Office revenue is a politico-commercial Index.

In the year 1652 the revenues of the Post Offices of England, Scotland and Ireland were farmed for the annual sum of	} £10,000
The postage of a single letter carried to any distance not exceeding 80 miles, was 2d. and beyond 80 miles 3d.	
In 1663 the Post Office was farmed at	21,000
In 1685 the revenue of it was estimated at	65,000
The nett produce of the Post Office revenue on an average of four years, 1707-1710, according to Mr. Astle's transcript, was	} 58,052
In 1711 the rates of postage were augmented from 2d. to 3d., and so in proportion,	
The nett produce on the average of four years, 1711-1714, was £88,223 for England and £2,000 for Scotland,	} 90,223
In 1722 the gross amount was	£201,804
Deduct for franks, £33,398 and management, £70,396,	} 103,794
The nett produce was	98,010
In the year ending 5th April 1765 the gross amount was	210,663
In the year 1764 franking was limited by Act 4, Geo. III., C. 24,	
In the year ending the 5th April 1765 the gross amount increased to	} 281,535
And on that ending 5th April 1775 it was further increased to	345,321.

In 1815 by Act of George III., it was permitted to owners, charterers or consignees of vessels resident in Great Britain, to receive letters free of postage, if sent by their own ships, from Ceylon, the Mauritius, or any place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, provided they did not exceed the weight of twenty ounces by any one vessel. It was provided, however, that the owners should be described as such upon the superscription of the letter so addressed. For falsely superscribing any letter, penalty £10.

By the same act no ship was allowed to report until the master had signed a declaration that all the letters on board had been delivered to some Post Master. Nor was any ship bound to the East Indies permitted to take letters on board save by special authority from the Post Master General.

A command issued from the General Post Office in June 1835 required the masters and commanders of ships on their arrival off the coast of Great Britain, to cause all letters "*to be collected and sent on shore*" by the pilot boat, ship's boat, or any safe opportunity, to be delivered at the first regular Post Office "*which could be communicated with.*" Should any packet, or letter, not exempt by law, be found in possession of the captain, in possession of any of the crew, or of any passenger on board, every such person should forfeit and pay for every such letter, the sum of £5. And this with the view of ensuring "*the landing of the whole of the letters at one and the same time.*" The time is probably not far distant when some such regulations will be found to operate favorably in our own country. There can be little doubt that a *speedy and impartial* delivery of letters is of extreme importance to the interests of merchants and of the public at large. Hence, doubtless, the necessity of this vigilance on the part of the English Government.

We subjoin the following with the view of showing the rates at which foreign letters were charged at this time from different portions of the world:

RATES OF POSTAGE ON FOREIGN LETTERS.

America and West Indies, 2s. 2d.—Madeira, 2s. 7d.—Gibraltar, 2s. 10d.—Malta, Majorca, Sicily and the Mediterranean, 3s. 2d.—South America, 3s. 6d.—Portugal, 2s. 6d.—France, 1s. 2d.—Holland, 1s. 4d.—Hamburg, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Germany, Prussia, Russia, &c., 1s. 8d.—Italy, by Germany, 1s. 8d., by France, 1s. 11d.—Spain, by France, 2s. 2d.

His Majesty's Post Master General on the 20th July 1836 issued another command having special reference to France, making it optional, whether the payment of postage was made either in whole or in part, as to the frontier of France, or of leaving the whole unpaid, to be discharged by the receiver. And this applied equally to patterns of merchandize. By an express understanding and agreement, the rates were reduced both in France and England; in the latter at the rate of about 4d. on single letters, and so in proportion for double and treble letters.

English newspapers could be sent to France, under the usual restrictions, such as being in covers open at the sides, without writing and enclosures, free of charge *to the sender*. Four centimes were charged upon their delivery in France. French newspapers were charged one-half penny upon delivery at any of the offices in the United

Kingdom and the Colonies. Unpaid letters could be sent to France, but not to such countries as it was necessary to pass through France to reach. It was required that all letters for Switzerland and Sardinia, for southern Italy, Italian frontier of Sardinia, for Austria and Venetian Lombardy must be paid in advance to the place of destination.

We subjoin a statement of the rates imposed under this arrangement as compared with those which had previously existed.

British rates upon a single letter from London for France, and countries passing through France:

	Old rate.	New rate.
France,	1s. 2d.	0s. 10d.
Spain and Portugal,	2 2	1 7
Switzerland,	1 8	1 2
Germany,	1 8	1 4
Italy, Turkey, etc.,	1 11	1 7
Dover and Calais,	0 6	0 3

There can be no doubt that many and wonderful improvements have been made in the Post Office Department of England within the last ten years, both as regards the conveyance of mails and the reduction of rates. This will be made fully apparent, we think, when we are called to state some facts with which for the present we shall close this article, already grown beyond the proportions to which we had intended to confine it. But for one fact now: In travelling from Edinburgh to London in 1763, from sixteen to eighteen days were employed,—the distance is about 396 miles. In 1830 sixty hours was all that was required to traverse this route. In 1831, the number of Post Masters in England amounted to about six hundred. In Scotland there were about two hundred. The mail coaches travel daily upwards of 13,000 English miles, for which the contractors are paid a penny and a half per mile.

The revenue collected from this source for the year ending January 5, 1833, amounted to £2,175,291 8s. 7½d. The expenditures for the same period, including all payments, were estimated at £707,288 19s. 3¼d., clearly evidencing what has never yet existed in our country, an amount of receipts much more than double the expenses to which the establishment is subjected.

In 1840 there were 1903 employees in the London Post Office, including letter carriers and receivers. The arrangements were of such a nature that the mails left the General Post Office every day, except Sunday, and so harmonious was the action by which all its parts were regulated, that none arrived on that day. Since the 10th of January, 1840, the rate of postage has been uniform, so far at least as the weight is regarded.

A letter of more than half an ounce, is charged one penny; one ounce, two-pence, and so on adding one penny for every additional half ounce.

The franking privilege has been entirely abolished. In view of the various restrictions which we have seen imposed upon it during the many changes through which the system has passed, this fact is not calculated to create much astonishment in the mind. Every step it has made has been an approach to this point.

Newspapers are *free*, provided they are mailed within eight days after they are printed. Foreign newspapers, however, are charged 2d. each. This may be a very equitable feature in the regulation of postage upon newspapers, inasmuch as every paper published in England pays a stamp duty of 2d.

There is a *Money Order Office*, where all sums under two pounds are insured for a small premium. Drafts are drawn upon the office, when it is desired to remit, and notice transmitted the day previously.

Every railway in England is "*obliged by law*" to carry a mail either by day or by night, should it be desired by the Post Master General.

In 1840 the mail was carried upon nine different railways. The price per mile on the great road from London to Liverpool, is \$107,50.

We have endeavoured, thus imperfectly, to sketch the outlines of a system that has exercised, and will probably continue to exercise, a wonderful influence upon the nations of the world, second only to that master discovery, the printing press. Its achievements thus far we can imperfectly trace its usefulness for the future, in this age of brilliant invention, who may pretend to divine!

In another number we may devote a few pages to the review of this system, as connected with the regulations which govern the different Post Offices in Europe, by no means neglecting our own, the most important of all.

Art. X.—COMMERCIAL JURISPRUDENCE.

SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA.—IN BANKRUPTCY.

City Bank of New Orleans v. William Houston, et. al.

EUSTIS, C. J., delivered the opinion of the majority of the Court; SLIDELL, J., dissenting:

This is an hypothecary action, in which the creditor asks for a decree subjecting certain property in the possession of the defendants to the payment of his debt.

The defendants plead in substance, that they purchased the property at a judicial sale, made of a bankrupt's estate under a decree of the Bankrupt Court, with a clear certificate of the Recorder of Mortgages that the proceedings in bankruptcy were regular, and that by reason thereof, and the discharge of the bankrupt, and by the

decrees of the Bankrupt Court, the mortgage was extinguished and lawfully cancelled, and the property released from any charge or incumbrance resulting therefrom. That they were bona fide purchasers, and paid the purchase money, and that the City Bank was connusant of the sale and all the proceeding in bankruptcy, and is bound by notice and knowledge of the same.

There was judgment for the defendant, and the plaintiff has appealed.

The transcripts of the different proceedings and the other documents, have been so methodically set forth in the printed statement furnished in the brief of the counsel for the plaintiff, that it would be useless to give any further analysis of them. We proceed to give our decision on the different questions of law which this interesting case presents.

1. We do not consider that there is any thing in the conduct of the officers of the Bank, as it is before us in evidence, which would bind the Bank by the sale of the mortgaged property. They acted, on their view of the law, consistently throughout; misled no one, deceived no one. The different opinions among professional men in relation to the powers of the Bankrupt Court, are matters of notoriety, and prevented any one from acting otherwise than with caution and deliberation in the purchase of mortgaged property at bankrupt sales. It is impossible for us to overlook a fact which thus excludes the plaintiff from the operation of the salutary and equitable rule invoked by the counsel for the defendants.

2. The late Parish Court for the parish and city of New Orleans, at the instance of the assignee of the bankrupt, rendered a judgment against the Recorder of Mortgages, by which the latter was ordered to cancel the mortgage which is the subject of the present suit, and grant a certificate of no mortgage. On an appeal, this judgment was affirmed. The plaintiff was not a party to these proceedings, and is not bound by them, and the mortgage in question existing on the property at the time of the sale and afterwards,—unless released by the decree of the Bankrupt Court, or by the sale itself,—so far as the defendants are concerned, must be considered for all the purposes of this inquiry, as subsisting. The power and jurisdiction of the Bankrupt Court in this respect must be next considered.

This is a case in which the Bankrupt Court, at the instance of the assignee, without the consent of mortgagee creditor, ordered mortgaged property to be sold and the mortgage to be cancelled in the manner authorized by our laws, considering the assignee vested with the same authority as is exercised by syndics in the settlement and liquidation of insolvent estates under the *cessio bonorum*.

The argument presents two antagonist systems as the true theory of the Bankrupt Act of 1841, and we have to decide between them. One gives to the Bankrupt Court an unlimited and absolute control over all mortgages, liens, privileges, and incumbrances, on all the property surrendered by the bankrupt; the other confines its jurisdiction to the unincumbered assets belonging to the bankrupt, except in cases in which parties may voluntarily apply to the court for relief, or remedies may be sought to be imposed against them which are authorized by other special provisions of the Bankrupt Act.

The different opinions entertained by enlightened and learned men on this subject, attest its difficulty, and we are relieved by their researches, from the labour, and in some degree from the responsibility of determining the question as *res nova*, by having it in our power to adopt one of the conflicting theories under the conviction which the full discussion of the whole subject has produced on our minds.

Without drawing into question the constitutional power of Congress, under the authority, to establish a uniform system of bankruptcy throughout the United States, to vest the jurisdiction in the Bankrupt Court, which is contended for by the counsel for the defendants, it is not a little singular, that for these absolute powers contained in such a jurisdiction over the property of third persons, the exercise of which depends upon the will of any one who chooses to apply for the benefit of the Act, there is no express warrant in the Act itself, nor are these powers necessary to carry it into effect.

The object of the Bankrupt Act was the discharge of debtors from their debts. Our artificial state of things was supposed to require the great remedy of *nova tabula*. This was the purpose of the Act, and there was neither reason nor policy in touching any other rights of property than those which stood in the way of this object.

The proviso contained in the second section, if it mean any thing, must mean this. It says: "That nothing in this Act contained shall be construed to destroy, annul, or impair any lawful rights of married women or minors, or any liens, mortgages, or

other securities on property, real or personal, which may be valid by the laws of the States, respectively, and which are not inconsistent with the provisions of the second and fifth sections of this Act."

So far from the Act providing for the protection of these rights under its operation, they are expressly excluded from its benefit. All who prove their debts under the Act must show alike, with the exception of the United States; those subrogated to their rights, and certain operatives for their wages, not exceeding twenty-five dollars. The proviso of the second section is scarcely more explicit and positive than that which exempts fiduciary debts from the operation of the bankruptcy. Mr. Justice McLean in the case of *Chapman v. Forsyth*, 2 Howard, 208, in speaking of that class of debts, says: "But as the discharge operates only on debts, contracts, etc., which are provable under the Act, it is said that consent cannot include fiduciary debts. Such debts, without the assent of the creditor, are clearly not within the Act. But if his debt shall be found on the schedule, and he not only proves it but receives his proportionate share of the dividends, he is estopped from saying that it was not within the law. He is a privileged creditor, and is not bound by the bankrupt law; but he may waive his privilege. As a creditor, he has the right to come into the Bankrupt Court and claim his dividend. He does not establish his claim as a fiduciary one, but as a debt 'provable within the statute.' And having done this, he can never controvert the discharge."

If the mortgage creditor prove his debt under the Act, he can only receive a dividend with the other creditors. This of itself excludes the conclusion that the mortgaged property must be sold in the bankrupt proceedings.

The section 11th is coincident with and justifies this construction. It provides that the assignee shall have full authority, under the court, in bankruptcy, to redeem and discharge any mortgage or other pledge or deposit, or lien upon any property, real or personal, whether payable on *presenti* or at a future day, and to tender a due performance of the conditions thereof. By this means, the incumbrance being removed the property belongs to the creditors, and is to be divided ratably among them, but no power is given over the mortgage, pledge or lien, except to satisfy it, and thereby release the property. This is all that can be done by the court in bankruptcy.

If this be not the true construction of the Bankrupt Act, it certainly recommends itself by its extreme simplicity, by its accordance with the general tenor of the Act, and (its evident purpose and intentment) its conformity with every one of its provisions, and its opposition to none. It gives the debtor all the relief he is entitled to ask; it discharges him from his debts, personally, but leaves the rights of his creditors on property affected by his debts unimpaired. It leaves the State tribunals in the full exercise of their jurisdiction, except so far as that jurisdiction is divested by the constitutional power of the Bankrupt Court, with full and complete authority to carry into effect an uniform system of bankruptcy, and prevents that accumulation of power in the Bankrupt Court, which is to be exercised without appeal, and which we cannot believe the Act confers.

Some weight is attempted to be given to the contrary construction of the Act, from the mode of proceeding under our system of insolvency, but it has no affinity with the Bankrupt Act. The system of bankruptcy must be uniform throughout the United States. The inquiry is as to the jurisdiction conferred by the Act on the Bankrupt Court, the powers of assignees and of the Bankrupt Court must be determined by its provisions.

We find them adequate for their object, consistent, and carrying out well recognised and constitutional powers. If the assignee finds that the property of the debtor is incumbered, he is authorized to remove the incumbrance by satisfying the creditor; he can sell it *cum onere*, or he can leave the creditor to exercise his right against it at his option, but we find nothing which authorizes the Bankrupt Court, under this Act, to annul any mortgage, lien or security, reserved, as we consider, under the proviso of the second section of the Act.

It is also worthy of remark, that it is surprising that in so elaborately prepared a statute as the Bankrupt Act, no single provision is made for the mode of exercise of this jurisdiction over pledges, liens and mortgages, for which the necessity was evident. Nor can this omission be considered as an oversight, for the Act bears in every part the proofs of great care and foresight. In the eleventh section the assignee is not authorized to compound or compromise any debts, or on securities due to or belonging to the bankrupt except under the authority of the court after ten days public notice in a newspaper.

The rules of court for proceedings in bankruptcy prepared under the direction of the Supreme Court of the United States contained no provision on this important subject. Such being the view we have taken of the Act itself, it now remains to examine the authorities cited. The principal cases on which the appellees have based their argument in favour of the powers of the Bankrupt Court under which the mortgages in this case were released, are that of *Ex parte Christy*, 3, Howard's Reports, 293, and *Norton's Assignee v. Boyd*, id. 427. Those cases were decided in 1845, and were preceded by two cases decided by the late Supreme Court of this State, *Clarke v. Rosenda*, 5 Robinson's Reports, 27, and *Conrad, Assignee, v. Prieur, Recorder of Mortgages*, id. 49, which it is material to notice. The cases decided in the Supreme Court of the United States were both from the Louisiana District, and it is apparent from the argument of counsel and the opinion of the court that the decisions of our own court were not without influence in leading the learned Judges of the Supreme Court of the United States to the conclusions to which a majority of them arrived.

The Louisiana decisions maintain the extraordinary powers asserted by the Bankrupt Court to their full extent. But they were made by a bare majority of the court. Judge Martin took no part in the causes, and on both occasions Judge Bullard gave a formal and emphatic dissent to the opinions of the court, and supported his views by a thorough and elaborate examination of the subject, which we consider unanswerable as a sound exposition of the legal intentment and construction of the Bankrupt Act.

We think these decisions of the late Supreme Court of this State are founded on two capital errors. One is in taking it for granted that the Bankrupt Act is in its administration identical with our Louisiana insolvent system, and that all the powers given by our laws to our courts for the liquidation of insolvent estates are given by the Bankrupt Act to the Bankrupt Court, which is no less than assuming the very point in dispute.

This assumption is founded on a supposed necessity which authorizes the recognition of implied powers. It is obvious that no such necessity exists, and a very slight examination of the subject will satisfy any one that the supposition is chimerical.

Another error consists in considering the mortgage, under our laws, as different from mortgages as they exist in other parts of the Union. But under the Bankrupt Act the proceedings in that Court are according to the rules and principles of equity, and equity considers mortgages as our laws consider them, simply as the security for a debt or obligation, 3 Blackstone's Com. 435. The distinction between the two is without a difference so far as relates to the action of a court of equity upon them. Code 3245, 3249.

And in relation to the supposed necessity of releasing the mortgages in order to facilitate the liquidation of the bankrupt estate, we have only to refer to the operation of the Bankrupt Act in States other than Louisiana, in which the absolute control of the Bankrupt Court over mortgages has never been asserted, nor is any such necessity supposed to exist under the English system of bankruptcy. The opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States, in *Christy's* case, was delivered on an application for a prohibition to the District Court of Louisiana, and it was held that the court had no authority to issue writs of prohibition except in the cases provided for by statute; that is, where the District Courts were proceeding as courts of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction. The application being in a case in bankruptcy, it was disallowed.

The doctrinal portion of this opinion supports the jurisdiction of the Bankrupt Court to the extent contended for by the counsel for the appellees, and it is affirmed in the subsequent case of *Norton's Assignee v. Boyd et al.*

The opinions in these cases do not come before us in such a form as to command an acquiescence, and to demand from us a sacrifice of conscience, and our sense of duty to authority. Being entirely aloof from those feelings which controversy rarely fails to engender even with those who are the most anxious to avoid its effects, we have not stated in detail the objections to which we think the opinion of that high tribunal is obnoxious. There is one, however, which it will not, we hope, be considered out of place if we submit.

The Supreme Court has never decided that the jurisdiction of the Bankrupt Court was exclusive of the State courts. The point was expressly and formally reviewed in *Norton's* case, and the general exercise of the jurisdiction of the State Courts on liens and mortgages, we think renders its lawfulness unquestionable. In order to enable the Bankrupt Court to liquidate an estate according to the doctrine in *Christy's* case, to class and settle the rank of the privileges and mortgages, to ascertain and give their relative position to the different liens existing under our laws, the jurisdiction must be exclusive, the power must be absolute. A conflicting authority is irreconcilable with

a speedy settlement, and leads to litigation and delay which it is admitted on all hands the Bankrupt Act repudiates throughout.

The only mode by which estates can be settled within a reasonable time under that Act is by leaving it to operate upon the unincumbered assets of the bankrupt, and permitting those who have rights of property to exercise them in the ordinary tribunals as their interest or inclination may prompt them. The necessity of making the jurisdiction exclusive in order to enable the system to work out its own ends appears to us so obvious that we cannot consider that a matter of this importance would be omitted, or even left in doubt by the distinguished authors of this remarkable law. We cannot believe it was left to be implied, and that such a delegation of power, exclusive and without appeal, over the property of citizens, should be assumed or vested otherwise than openly, expressly, and in a formal manner.

So much has been before the public on this question, that anything further on our part would be merely an exhibition of what has been previously said, and it only remains to state our thorough conviction of the correctness of the views taken of it in the cases cited by Judge Bullard in his dissenting opinions, and which we adopt as an exposition of our own.

In withholding our assent to the opinion given in Christy's case, we are far from considering that we in any one single point derogate from the respect which we owe and feel for the memory of the illustrious Judge who delivered it, or for that august tribunal from which it emanated.

We are acting under the stern responsibility of duty, and under the consolation that if our views are sound they will be sustained, and if erroneous they will be corrected by the superior wisdom of those who will be called upon to decide this case in the last resort.

There is an irrational and fastidious delicacy, which shrinks from the examination of every thing which bears the semblance of authority, but following the example of that court itself, and the lights which it holds out to those who are in pursuit of truth, we have considered this important subject with great care and solicitude, and cannot refuse to the party litigant the benefit of our conscientious and deliberate convictions.

In the case of the Louisville Railroad Company *v.* Letson, 2d Howard, 554, Mr. Justice Wayne in delivering the opinion of the court, says:

"We remark, too, that the cases of Strawbridge and Curtis, the Bank and Deveaux, have never been satisfactory to the bar, and that they were not, especially the last, entirely satisfactory to the court that made them. They have been followed always most reluctantly and with dissatisfaction. By no one was the correctness of them more questioned than by the late Chief Justice who gave them. It is within the knowledge of several of us, that he repeatedly expressed regret that those decisions had been made, adding whenever the subject was mentioned, that if the point of jurisdiction was an original one, the conclusion would be different. We think we may safely assert, that a majority of the members of this court have at all times partaken of the same regret, and that whenever a case has occurred on the circuit involving the application of the case of the Bank and Deveaux, it was yielded to, because the decision had been made, and not because it was thought to be right. We have already said that the case of the Bank of Vicksburgh and Slocumb, 14 Peters, was most reluctantly given on mere authority. We are now called upon, upon the authority of those cases alone, to go further in this case than has yet been done. It has led to a review of the principles of all the cases. We cannot follow further, and upon our maturest deliberation we do not think that the cases relied upon for a doctrine contrary to that which this court will here announce, are sustained by a sound and comprehensive course of professional reasoning. Fortunately, a departure from them involved no change in a rule of property. Our conclusion, too, if it shall not have universal acquiescence, will be admitted by all to be coincident with the policy of the constitution and the condition of our country."

The Act under consideration had but a short existence, but the exigencies of the future may require similar remedies to meet them, and it is in a political point of view extremely important to ascertain the extent of power vested in a Bankrupt Court by the terms and provisions of this Act, which may serve as a guide to be followed, or an example to be avoided in future legislation.

Under the conclusions to which we have arrived, it is unnecessary to examine the other objections taken by the plaintiff to the force and effect of the bankrupt proceedings, being of opinion that so far as they affect the plaintiff's mortgage, the court was without jurisdiction. The plaintiff is entitled to his judgment. It is therefore ordered and decreed that the judgment of the District Court be avoided and reversed.

ART. XI.—THE RELATIONS OF MAN TO SOCIETY.*

I. The first principles of laws are discovered in two truths: 1st. That laws of man are rules of his conduct. 2d. Rules of his conduct are the steps man makes towards accomplishing the great object of his existence.

In the soul of man are two powers. An *understanding* to know, and a *will* to love. The first law of man is therefore his destination to the *knowledge* and *love* of that object in which he is to find his happiness. This is the spirit of religion. It enjoins man to *search* after and *love* that which makes up the sovereign good. This first law being common to men, it implies a second law, *unity* among themselves, and *love* of one another.

By the spirit of these two laws, God designed to unite men in the possession of their common good. He consequently makes society essential to their happiness.

II. As man cannot move towards an object except through the light of *understanding*, and the motions of *will*, God has made the knowledge and love of the sovereign good, in which consists the happiness of the mind and heart of man, to depend on man's obedience to the first law.

God has also so matched men among themselves, and adapted the universe to mankind, that the objects which incite in them the love of the sovereign good, engages them likewise to society and to mutual love of one another. Thus, the things of this life, while of common use only pass into that use by the labor of many persons. This renders men necessary to one another, and forms the various ties for the uses of agriculture, commerce, arts and sciences. The conjunction of spirit and matter, or of senses and members, makes them the instruments of two uses essential to society. First, by uniting the minds and hearts of men among themselves. Second, by applying men to the different labors necessary for supplying their wants.

God having destined man to society, hath formed certain *ties* which attach him to it. First, a general tie arising among men from their nature, and their destination to one and the same end, and which is common to all mankind: And secondly, particular ties, which unite men among themselves more closely, and determine each one to exercise towards particular persons that love which cannot be exercised towards mankind in general. The duties of men towards one another are only

* Principles of the Civil Law, extracted from Domat's "*Les Loix Civiles, dans leur ordre naturel.*"

the effects of the love which every man owes to another, according to the engagements under which he happens to be.

These particular ties are of two kinds. First, those formed by the natural ties of marriage, between husband and wife; and of birth, between parents and children; and by consequence of kindred and affinity. Second, those arising from the several communications of men with respect to their labor, industry, offices, services, or which relate to the use of things.

In the characters of these different engagements, we see the foundations of the several rules of that which justice and equity demand of every person, according to the conjunctures in which his engagements place him.

III. The engagements which marriage produces between husband and wife, and them and their children, form a particular society in each family. It is in the mysterious union of man and wife, and in the dependance of infancy upon the assistance of parents, that we discover the foundations of the laws relating to the ties of marriage and birth. Marriage being a tie formed by the hand of God, ought to be celebrated in a manner becoming its divine institution. It should be preceded and accompanied by decency; by the reciprocal choice of the parties; by the consent of parents; and be celebrated by the ministry of the church. A marriage once lawfully contracted, cannot be dissolved.

The union of persons in marriage is the foundation of all civil society, which unites them in the use of all things. The husband being the head of the wife, he has power over her, proportioned to the rank he has in the union. Marriage being instituted for the multiplying of mankind by the union of husband and wife, hence arises the principle of laws against other conjunctions.

In order to form the tie of birth, it is ordered, that man in infancy should for a long time depend on his parents; this is the origin of the grateful return children again make to the old age of parents. Children inherit the goods of parents after their death, as an accessory to the life they have received. And as the tie of birth unites fathers and mothers to their children, so it unites them to the descendants of those children. Thus all descendants stand as children, and all ascendants as parents. The opposition of the characters of the love which unites husband and wife, and parent and child, is the foundation of laws prohibiting marriage between ascendants and descendants, in all degrees, and between collaterals in some degrees.

From marriage and birth proceed two other natural ties. First, col-

lateral relationship, called kindred. Second, allies by marriage called affinity. Ascendants and descendants are in a direct line from father to son. Collaterals have their own line terminating in the common ascendant.

IV. Engagements, not of birth or marriage, are *voluntary* or *involuntary*; for man is a free agent and enters upon some engagements willingly; others God puts upon him without his free choice. Voluntary engagements are of two sorts. 1. Such as are formed mutually between two or more persons, who bind themselves reciprocally to one another. 2d. Such as arise from the will of one of the parties alone, who engages himself to other persons who do not treat with him. Examples of the first kind, are: partnership, letting and hiring, buying and selling, and all kinds of covenant. Examples of the second sort, are: engagements, the consequences of voluntary employments, as executorships, &c. Involuntary engagements are such as arise from the duties of men in the offices of Judge, Sheriff, and others of like nature. From the guardianship of an infant; from the obligation to reimburse a friend who has managed our affairs in absence; the obligation of supporting destitute persons; employing the ministry and authority of justice in aid of the oppressed, &c. The spirit of the law of all these engagements, is, the love we reciprocally owe to each other. These engagements demand the use of a government to restrain every one within the order of those that are peculiar to him. It is for this that God hath established the authority of the powers necessary to maintain society.

V. From the engagements which have been mentioned arise certain general rules, which are principles of the civil law. These are

1. Every man is bound to discharge, in society, his duties and functions according as he is determined to them by his rank and his other engagements. The engagements of every person are therefore his proper laws.

2. Men should undertake nothing which may disturb the order of society. This implies submission and obedience to the powers established for the maintainance of society.

3. Each person is so to contain himself in his rank, as to make no bad use, either of himself or of that which belongs to him. This rule relates to the preservation of good manners, modesty and decency; and authorizes the punishment of such as fall into despair, blaspheme, squander their estates, &c.

4. Men should do wrong to no man, and render to every one his due.

5. In voluntary engagements, those who treat together, owe to one another : 1st. Sincerity in explaining, reciprocally, what it is they engage themselves to ; 2d. Fidelity, in the execution of it. From this rule it results that the seller should declare sincerely the quality of the thing he sells ; that he should take care of it, till he delivers it ; that he warrant it.

6. In involuntary engagements the obligation is proportioned to the nature and consequences of the engagement.

7. In all engagements, infidelity, double-dealing, deceit and knavery are forbidden.

8. If a man refuses to perform what his engagements demand, the authority of justice may compel him.

9. Voluntary engagements may be made as men think fit, provided they are not contrary to rule ten.

10. All engagements are lawful only in so far as they conform to the order of society, and do not violate the laws and good manners.

VI. This chapter relates to friendships ; and having no particular relation to laws proper, is omitted.

VII. The order of successions is founded on the necessity of continuing and transmitting the state of society. This is done by making certain persons succeed in the place of those who die. Successions are distinguished from engagements ; for though successions oblige those who succeed to others, to bear their burdens and to pay their debts, it is under the view of the change which makes the goods, rights, burdens, and engagements of those who die, pass to their successors.

VIII. Society is disturbed by those troubles which disturb its order, law suits, crimes, and wars. Law suits are of two sorts : those which respect only simple interest, called civil causes ; and those which are the consequences of quarrels, such as offences and crimes, called criminal causes. Crimes affect either the honor, the person, or the estate, and are suppressed, 1st. By correcting the guilty ; 2d. By repairing the evil they have done ; 3d. By restraining the wicked by the example of punishments.

Wars are the consequence of differences between nations, which being independent have no common judge : or they arise from the attempts of a prince, or state, upon a neighbour ; or are rebellions of subjects.

IX. All the disorders in society arise from man's disobedience to the first law. The fall of man having increased his wants, hath augmented the necessity of labor and commerce ; and the diversity of his wants engages him in ties, without which he could not exist. Self-love is,

therefore, the cause of all evil to, and a remedy for, supporting society. But there are natural foundations for preserving society. 1. Religion: 2. The secret government of God: 3. The authority given to sovereign power; 4. The capacity of man to discover the natural rules of equity. This capacity is the light of reason, and teaches men to do harm to none, to render to every one his due, to be sincere in engagements, and faithful in executing promises, &c.

Art. XI.—SUB-SOIL PLOUGHING.

We publish the communication below without knowing the name of the author. As the remarks made are of a practical character, and likely to be of useful tendency, we freely give them. We are always pleased to have an expression of opinion from our planting friends, and invite them all to furnish us as often as they please the results of their experience and their views in all the departments of agriculture. This is an important division of our journal, in which we now stand entirely alone at the South. For the manner in which the author has seen fit to allude to the REVIEW, and to our labors, he will receive the expression of our warmest gratitude. To have done well, it is ever a high reward. We would fain do infinitely better.—
ED. COM. REVIEW.

ASSUMPTION, January 20th, 1847.

I consider the article on "Cotton and the Cotton Planters," in your last number, as of far more value than my subscription money for the whole year. It is a volume which I mean to study, and if I cannot make out of it a profit fifty times the amount of five dollars by the year's end, I shall, indeed, prove a dull scholar.

The time will come, and is now to an extent, when we shall be compelled to pay more regard to the thorough culture of our soil than we have. The caterpillar in the Cotton, and the worm in the Tobacco, as also, the new epidemic, the rot in the potatoe, I consider as the *effect* of disease, and not the *cause*.

To guard against them, we must do our best to render our crops so strong and healthy, as to be able to throw off a slight attack, or to bear up under severe infliction. Many years ago, Jethro Tull discovered that the pulverization of the earth was the best manure that could be given to the crop; and after five crops of wheat in succession had been grown on this principle, he declared that they had been uniformly greater every year to the end of the experiment. Now, this speaks volumes in favor of a more thorough culture of our lands; but I am inclined to doubt, whether our small and sharp-cutting ploughs are the best calculated to produce that state of uniform pulverization, which is

more especially needed in our alluvial soils in the vicinity of the river. By means of larger ploughs, we should penetrate deeper, and operate by *breaking* up the earth, rather than by *cutting* it on the principle of spade labor, which has been denominated "the perfection of good husbandry;" and I have no doubt we should find a benefit to the crop and a saving of labor in the after-culture, that would secure us such an increase in the yield as to constitute the difference between a profit and loss at the end of the year. At any rate I mean to try it.

I saw and examined the ploughs that were exhibited at the Baton Rouge Fair; and, in connection with your valuable article, as also in unison with the opinion expressed by the editor of the "Concordia Intelligencer," of the 9th instant, in a very interesting and elaborate description of them, would take leave to say, they appear the best adapted of any I have before seen, to the purpose of renovating our soils and strengthening our crops. They were the "Prouty & Mears" or "Centre Draft" Ploughs of extra workmanship and high finish.

I perceive the use of the Sub-soil Plough is coming into notice. Three of these by the same makers were exhibited, and I regretted exceedingly that no opportunity could be found of putting their pretensions to the test. A friend from the tobacco region informs me, if just at the time when the prognostic of the worm makes its appearance—a particularly vivid appearance of growth, like the hectic glow of a consumptive patient—a Sub-soil Plough is run between the rows to the greatest depth it can be worked, by two or three horses or mules, in length, so as to allow a superabundance of moisture to pass off, or in a season of drought to permit evaporation from the sub-soil, a difference in the verdure of the plant is soon perceptible, and a natural vigor of growth such as to throw off the attack; he also advocating the novel doctrine, that both the caterpillar and the worm are the *effects* of disease, and not the primary *causes*.

For your next number I hope to furnish you with an article on the all-important uses of the operation of draining, in connection with the invaluable paper on that subject in your last.

R. C.

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

COMMERCE AND TONNAGE OF THE WORLD.

Tonnage Great Britain 3,000,000; France 590,000; Sweden and Norway 480,000; Holland 375,000; Prussia 225,000; Austria 210,000; Two Sicilies 208,000; Sardinia 170,000; Denmark 155,000; Greece 148,000; Turkey 180,000; Portu-

gal 81,000; Spain 80,000; Bremen 60,000; Hamburg 57,000; Hanover and Oldenburg 57,000; Russia 51,000; Ionian Islands 49,000; Mecklenburg-Schwerin 46,000; Roman States 39,000; Tuscany 25,000; Belgium 28,000; Lucca 20,000; United States of America 2,400,000.—Total 8,734,000.

In our December number we were over high in estimating the relative commerce of England, and too low in estimating the smaller nations. The proportionate commerce of all Europe is thus represented by Lloyd: England 51 13-16; France 13 3-5; Holland 5 7-9; Hamburg 4 4-5; Russia 3 8-9; Sardinia 3 1-6; Belgium 2 1-9; Prussia 2 1-9; Austria 1 4-5; Two Sicilies 1 1-2; Sweeden and Norway 1 1-5; Tuscany 1 1-9; Denmark 1 1-45; Bremen 1; Portugal 8-9; Spain 14-15. All other States together 6 per cent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCE.

Year ending 30th June, 1846.

I.—IMPORTS.

Free of Duty.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Bullion, gold,	\$66,103	\$14,150	Brass, do. do. do.	\$13,702	\$2,673
silver,	41,275	33,579	Dye-woods, in		
Specie, gold,	572,747	896,263	sticks,	603,408	588,654
silver,	2,210,117	2,833,740	Barilla,	22,917	24,428
Teas,	5,730,514	5,022,600	Burr stones,		
Coffee,	6,221,271	8,404,958	unwrought,	32,624	44,688
Copper in plates			Crude brimstone,	108,619	91,334
and sheets,	738,936	840,815	All other articles,	3,880,106	4,718,407
Do. in pigs, bars					
and old,	1,225,301	1,251,150		\$22,147,840	\$24,767,739

Duty ad valorem.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Manufac. of			Grass cloth,		
wool	\$10,057,875	\$9,673,425	matting &		
of cotton	13,863,282	13,530,625	matts	176,249	241,665
Silk and wors.			Wire, brass,		
goods	1,510,310	1,778,202	copper and		
Camlets and			plated	18,256	16,704
other man.			Arms, fire & side	146,155	151,427
of goats hair			Manuf. of iron		
and mohair	228,838	69,091	and steel	4,023,590	3,933,817
Silks, floss and			copper	107,756	133,728
manuf. not			brass	120,083	124,862
specified	1,027,541	1,864,811	tin	13,131	12,891
Lace, thread			other metals	26,517	32,000
and cotton,			Saddlery	268,247	258,246
gold & sil-			Man. of leather		
ver, &c.,	1,151,438	1,017,426	not specified	109,668	127,131
Flax, manf. of	4,923,109	5,098,505	Do. wood	176,091	294,376
Hemp do.	507,983	543,530	Glass, above 22x		
Clothing, rea-			14 inch	80,263	167,746
dy made, &			Do. silvered, fra-		
other art. of			med and oth-		
wear	1,173,028	847,742	er articles	371,375	351,464

Table continued.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Hats and bonnets, Leghorn, straw, chip & palm leaf	\$765,026	\$944,603	and other	\$109,230	\$271,335
Wares, China & porcelain	252,256	262,498	Teas imported from other places than those of their growth and produce	31,274	9,521
Do. earthen & stone	2,187,259	2,262,851	Coffees, do. do.	22,261	15,285
Do. plaited and gilt	159,227	143,946	Corks	90,862	92,754
Do. japanned	59,895	59,325	Quills	9,387	13,878
Furs, undressed on the skin	256,586	325,550	Wood, unmanf. mahogany & rose	299,082	260,347
Do. hats and muffs	16,646	12,829	Wool, not ex. 7c. lb.		
Do. hatters' & other	465,739	457,932	1845, lbs.,		
Hair cloth and seating	90,643	124,547	23,382,097 ;		
Brushes of all kinds	67,426	98,292	1846, lbs.		
Paper hangings	46,285	52,086	16,427,952	1,523,789	1,107,305
Slates of all kinds	121,768	155,930	Ex. 7 c. per lb.,		
Black lead pencils	11,798	14,209	1845, lbs.		
Copper bottoms, cut round, &c.	3,455	13,380	450,913		
Zinc in plates	73,909	68,127	1846, lbs.,		
Chronometers			130,295	136,005	26,921
and clocks	30,806	31,494	Art. not enum.		
Watches & parts of watches	1,106,543	1,265,393	at 1 per cent.	212,975	300,275
Gold and silver manuf. of	39,380	36,853	2½	1,690,460	2,105,628
Jewelry	139,539	180,055	5	4,975,003	4,307,100
Quicksilver	54,993	155,813	7	32,576	21,270
Buttons, metal			7½	29,685	67,022
			10	170,641	126,487
			12½	253	467
			15	292,873	363,525
			20	2,290,897	2,947,361
			25	1,103,334	992,732
			30	1,064,616	592,521
			35	46,701	44,024
				\$60,121,862	\$60,660,453

Specific Duty.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Silk, sewing, twist and manuf.	\$8,903,941	\$9,019,485	Molasses	3,154,782	3,332,297
Do. hats and bonnets	17,839	24,469	Oils, olive in casks	48,579	54,383
Woollens, flan. and baizes	175,387	156,851	li seed	105,574	48,424
Carpetings	431,914	253,543	al. other	3,779	7,812
Sail duck	272,031	217,162	Cocoa	92,389	122,679
Cotton bagging	128,525	24,521	Chocolate	1,627	952
Floor cloth and sail cloth	32,864	19,065	Sugar	4,780,556	5,447,257
Wines, all descriptions	1,470,186	1,848,044	Fruits, almonds, currants, raisins, &c.,	1,075,026	1,001,402
Spirits and cordials	1,191,120	1,323,021	Nuts, except those used for dyeing	68,733	83,289
Beer, ale, porter,	96,598	152,146	Spices, mace, nutmeg, pepper, &c.	506,621	525,413
Vinegar	6,252	4,639	Ginger	26,434	43,480

Table continued.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Camphor	143,542	64,374	nails, spikes,		
Cheese	8,831	7,051	cables, malica-		
Pearl barley	1,729	632	iron, &c.,	156,644	173,555
Beef and pork	1,088	776	Manuf. of iron		
Hams & bacon	3,540	4,276	& steel, screws,		
Bristles	172,076	244,719	anchors, anvils,		
Saltpetre	80,885	10,705	castings, hollow		
Indigo	862,700	898,518	ware, hinges,		
Wood or pastel	3,194	754	braziers' rods,		
Ivory black	1,243	1,682	sheet and hoop		
Opium	37,638	295,859	iron, &c.,	736,707	706,820
Glue	1,275	3,534	Iron in pigs	506,291	489,573
Gunpowder	3,284	132	Do. old & scrap	119,740	56,531
Bleaching powder	73,174	114,450	Do. bar, manuf.		
Cotton	648,966	144,055	by rolling	1,691,748	1,127,418
Thibet, Angora			Do. otherwise	872,157	1,165,429
& other goats'			Steel	795,675	1,234,408
hair	78,443	20,323	Leather, sole &		
Cigars	1,160,644	1,282,861	upper, gloves,		
Dry ochre and			boots & shoes,	743,795	839,441
in oil	22,168	37,715	Skins, tanned	127,123	163,492
Red and white			Paper, writing,		
lead	14,744	15,686	and all other	51,724	77,424
Cordage and ca-			Books of all		
bles	89,696	85,907	kinds	229,362	255,404
Twine & packed			Coal, 1845, tons,		
thread	115,768	87,760	35,776;		
Seines	5,298	3,753	" 1846, tons,		
Hemp of all			156,853; 223,919		378,597
kinds	536,707	730,064	Salt,	898,663	768,682
Flax, unmanf.	99,609	16,337	Potatoes,	58,949	22,721
Rags of all kinds	431,980	385,397	Fish, dr'd or sunk'd	9,646	9,319
Manuf. of glass			Do pickled	280,519	279,515
of all kinds	140,301	160,633	Art. not enumer-		
Demijohns	5,408	6,386	ated	86,801	121,756
Patent sheathing			Total paying		
metal	5,874	41,341	specific du-		
Pins	45,078	16,434	ties	\$34,914,862	\$36,263,605
Muskets & rifles	16,185	6,700	Total paying		
Wire—iron and			duties ad va-		
steel, cap, bon-			lorem	60,191,862	60,660,453
net, &c.,	25,661	24,459	Total free of		
Manuf. of iron			duty	22,147,840	24,767,739
tacks, screws,					
				\$117,254,564	\$121,691,797

2.—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

Total Exports from the United States to all Foreign Countries, and Imports thence,
for the year, ending 30th June, 1846:

	Exports to.	Imports from.	Exp. & Imp.
Russia,	\$632,467	1,570,054	2,202,521
Prussia,	435,855	31,584	467,739
Sweden,	543,906	730,150	1,274,056
Denmark,	1,247,158	753,927	1,301,085
H. aasetowns,	4,608,620	3,149,864	7,758,484
Holland,	2,727,445	1,971,680	4,699,125
Belgium,	2,381,814	836,372	3,218,186
Great Britain,	61,705,446	49,666,422	111,371,868

Table continued.

	<i>Exports to.</i>	<i>Imports from.</i>	<i>Exp. & Imp</i>
France,	15,825,851	34,330,882	40,156,733
Spain,	6,792,228	12,376,482	19,168,710
Portugal,	204,976	547,474	752,450
Italy,	1,366,915	1,189,786	2,556,701
Sicily,	617,832	513,235	1,131,067
Sardinia,	284,259		284,259
Trieste and the Adriatic ports, .	1,470,611	379,719	1,850,330
Turkey, &c.,	200,103	760,998	961,101
Morocco,		4,554	4,554
Texas,	473,603	183,058	656,661
Mexico,	1,531,180	1,836,621	3,367,801
Central America,	120,253	116,733	236,986
New Grenada,	75,944	67,043	142,987
Venezuela,	781,547	1,509,000	2,290,547
Brazil,	3,143,395	7,441,803	10,585,198
Argentine Republic,	184,425	799,213	983,638
Cisplantine Republic,	225,904	26,472	252,376
Chili,	1,768,570	1,270,900	3,044,530
Peru,		252,599	252,599
Republic of Equador,	1,130		1,130
China,	1,331,471	6,593,881	7,925,622
Hayti,	1,157,142	1,542,962	2,700,104
South America, generally, . . .	103,772		103,772
West Indies, generally,	127,651	12	127,663
Asia, generally,	428,519	361,988	790,507
Africa, generally,	632,351	475,040	1,107,391
Pacific Ocean,	354,903	153,029	507,932
Sandwich Islands,		243,034	243,034
Atlantic Ocean,		166	166
	<hr/> \$113,488,516	<hr/> \$121,691,797	<hr/> \$235,180,313

3.—EXPORTS.

Comparative re-export Foreign Merchandize.

Of Free Articles.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Wood, dye, and all other,	\$349,067	\$374,299	Specie, silver,	\$5,551,070	\$1,852,069
Copper in pigs, bars, plates, &c.,	62,775	15,900	Teas,	920,893	1,039,263
Specie, gold,	2,210,979	1,629,348	Coffee,	840,739	602,064
			All other articles,	239,576	311,103
				<hr/> \$10,175,099	<hr/> \$5,824,046

Of Ad Valorem.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Manufac. of wood, cotton, silk, not specified,	\$148,270 502,553 31,012	\$140,344 673,203 32,031	Saddlery, &c.,	\$331	\$621
Thread and cotton ball,	4,892	4,390	Manuf. of tin, brass, copper, &c.,	567	3,705
Manufac. of flax, hemp,	159,626 51,648	125,570 36,197	Manuf. of leather,	1,156	487
Clothing ready made and art's. of wear,	64,984	198,695	Plate glass, ex 22x14, silvered & framed,	546	4,088
Grass cloth, matting and matts,	2,989	10,489	Hats, and Leghorn, chip, straw, &c.,	32,655	27,352
Manufac. of iron and steel,	46,392	37,356	Wood, cabinet ware, & other manuf. of,	7,156	6,230
			Wares, china, porcelain, earthen & stone,	22,701	73,403
			Wares, plated, gilt & japanned,	1,745	318

Table continued.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Furs undressed on the skin, & hats, caps, muffs, tippets, hatters and other furs,	\$31,114	\$81,201	Corks,	\$3,974	\$3,534
Paper hangings,		4,911	Wood, unmanufact'd, rose, satin, cedar & mahogany,	82,555	116,799
Slates of all kinds,	1,920	2,085	Wool, ex. 7c. per lb., 1845, lbs., 64,495;		
Zinc, plates or sheets,	311	60	1846, lbs. 125,286,	22,153	41,571
Clocks, watches and parts of watches,	8,445	1,902	Mdz. not enumerated, at 1 per cent.,	1,325	1,413
Manuf. of gold, silver, and platina,	287	2,989	2½ "	7,648	15,312
Jewelry of gold and silver,		1,180	5 "	218,123	261,888
Metal buttons, and all others,	1,514	1,035	7½ "	325	775
Teas imported from other places than those of their growth,	6,264	2,403	10 "	15,473	1,450
Coffee,	1,736	6,204	12½ "		5
			15 "	49,421	66,724
			20 "	413,221	472,120
			25 "	80,607	75,430
			30 "	56,580	159,367
			35 "	21,201	17,364
				\$2,107,292	2,702,251

Of those Paying Specific Duties.

	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Silk, sewing, twist, & all manufact'd of,	\$235,538	\$191,362	Spice, maces, nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, pepper, pimento, cassia,	\$228,075	\$240,411
Silk hats,	227	1,320	Cheese,	1,656	239
Flannels,	3,747	7,058	Beef and pork,	1,797	
Carpeting,	629	137	Saltpetre,	7,085	10,020
Sail duck,	29,485	27,607	Indigo,	94,686	34,634
Cotton bagging,	18,173	32,665	Opium,	18,922	21,761
Wines, of all descriptions,	57,794	73,357	Tobac. manf. cigars,	75,819	114,089
Spirits and cordials,	95,957	94,076	Cotton, unmanufact.,	792,545	167,729
Beer, ale and porter,	7,059	18,354	Cordage and cables,	78,699	102,091
Vinegar,	924	814	Twine & pack thread,	6,697	4,524
Molasses,	82,761	78,222	Cylinder window glass,	1,324	94
Linseed oil,	19,494	15,288	Demijohns,	4,808	3,347
Olive oil,	4,947	4,600	Muskets,	20,631	14,373
Cocoa,	152,630	57,648	Manufactures of iron,	21,105	53,601
Sugar,	784,252	1,133,071	Steel,	20,002	32,864
Fruits, almonds, currants, prunes, figs, dates, raisins,	40,981	69,954	Writing paper,	6,053	6,870
Nuts not specified, except those used for dyeing,	3,555	6,223	Salt,	15,304	20,116
Paying specific duties,			Coal,	35,957	41,906
Paying duties ad. valorem,			Articles not enumer'd,	95,057	153,464
Free of duty,				\$3,064,439	\$2,820,326
				2,107,292	2,702,751
				10,175,099	5,824,046
				\$15,346,830	11,346,123

6.—THE VALUE OF AMERICAN CONSULATES.

According to the reports made to the Secretary of State, the total amount of fees received by the most important Consuls, abroad, in 1845, were as follows: London, \$2,620 70; Liverpool, \$9,963 46; Glasgow, \$2,105 61; Paris, \$1,600 55; Havre, \$3,061 50; Havanna, \$3,781 00; Antwerp, \$1,938 73; Trieste, \$1,418 95; Bremen, \$1,152 22; Canton, (China,) \$1,070 50; Oahu, (Sandwich Island,) 3.-390 00; Rio de Janeiro, \$5,332 50; Buenos Ayres, \$1,456.

7.—PROSPECTS OF AMERICAN POPULATION.

In answer to a query put to him by the Hon. John C. Calhoun, Wm. Darby, Esq., one of the early historians of Louisiana, makes the following response:

The population of the United States taken decennially, has augmented since 1790 by an increase of 3 per cent. per annum. Thus, in 1790, 3,929,827; 1800, 5,305,925; 1810, 7,239,814; 1820, 9,638,131; 1830, 12,856,407; 1840, 17,063,353. Following this ratio, it would be,

In 1850,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23,027,694
" 1860,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31,596,562
" 1870,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	41,839,588
" 1880,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	55,822,519
" 1890,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	73,977,990
" 1900,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	102,840,201

These data give lessons of the very highest import—lessons to rouse reflection on the facts that, if less than four millions, have increased to upwards of seventeen millions in fifty years, what will be the mighty influence of such increase of moral force with a constantly augmenting impetus, and expanding space, we might almost say. The zone of North America between north latitudes 30 and 50 degrees, exclusive of water surface, rather exceeds than falls short of three millions of square miles, and does not, to any great extent, vary from an equality to all Europe. Of this expanse, the United States territory already embraces upwards of two millions five hundred thousand of square miles, and consequently, when the population rises to one hundred millions, the mean density would then be under 50 to the square mile—a density far below that of several of the existing States at the present time. When we have thus means to decide the future, why not provide for its foreseen and inevitable results?

With California, the United States territory would exceed that of all Europe.

8.—MORTALITY OF STEAMBOATS.

In the year ending the 1st Nov., 1846, the losses in steamboats are estimated at 145, 116 of these being totally destroyed. The number of lives lost 310, and 93 persons injured more or less seriously. The number of boats lost on the Western rivers was 120; of which 46 were snagged, 38 were sunk, 16 burst boilers, 15 were run into by other vessels, 13 were destroyed by fire, 10 were ship-wrecked, and 7 were cut through by the ice. Total loss in value \$4,000,000 to \$5,000,000.

STATISTICS OF CITIES.

1.—THE CITY OF ST. LOUIS.

During the year 1845 the number of new buildings put up in this prosperous city, some of the most elegant character, is estimated at eighteen hundred, and during 1846 the number is supposed to have been little less. "Any one" says a writer "casting his eye over a map and tracing out the avenues which centre at this place, will at once see the importance of the future trade and business of St. Louis. The channels of communication are of such a nature that the trade of an immense region must come here, and it cannot be turned aside. It is useless to deny that all the elements of greatness are here, and that the increase of our population is to keep on at as rapid a rate as in times past, until we reach that degree of prosperity witnessed in no other inland city on this continent. Our position controls the only practical route to Santa Fe, and a large territory can be supplied with merchandize from this point

with greater facility than from any other. We have the command of the greatest grain-growing region of country in the world, and as those cities upon the Gulf engage in the commerce of Mexico, they must receive a great portion of their supplies through our agency."

2.—PITTSBURGH.

Clearances in year ending Nov. 30, 1846, 3,241; goods received from the East by canal, 12,651,818 lbs. dry goods; 10,522,463 lbs. hardware; 4,957,454 lbs. chinaware; 3,969,234 lbs. muslin; 6,933,856 lbs. groceries; 514,941 lbs. drugs; 10,920,993 lbs. coffee; 784,172 lbs. manufactured tobacco; 386,225 lbs. leather; 13,890,705 lbs. bloom iron; 15,410,966 lbs. pig iron; 107,352 lbs. paints; 1,029,814 lbs. tin; 121,951 lbs. glassware; 502,377 lbs. marble; 3,407,281 lbs. iron and nails; and 429,113 lbs. copper.

The following is the amount of goods shipped from that city to the East: 156,412 bbls. flour; 19,620 bbls. beef and pork; 21,661,236 lbs. bacon; 675,561 lbs. cheese; 800,265 lbs. butter; 291,313 lbs. tallow; 2,929,286 lbs. lard and lard oil; 40,199 lbs. feathers; 3,403,161 lbs. wool; 1,000,971 lbs. cotton; 1,287,886 lbs. hemp; 24,696,742 lbs. tobacco leaf; 185,200 lbs. leather; 454,146 lbs. hides; 110,969 lbs. furs; 993,378 lbs. deer and buffalo skins.

— AFFAIRS OF THE STATES.

Under this head it is our intention to include the States of the whole Union, and from time to time to make an exhibit as far as the facts may be furnished us, from whatever source, of their actual condition, resources, legislation and general movements.

1. MAINE.—The total amount of indebtedness, according to the statement of the Treasurer in April last, \$1,441,509 21, with an estimated excess of revenue for the coming year over estimated expenditures of \$445,628 49.

2. MASSACHUSETTS.—The Commonwealth now appears to be out of debt, except on account of its subscription to the Western Railroad, of \$1,000,000, due in 1857, and its loans to various Railroad Corporations, of about \$5,000,000.

The Massachusetts School Fund now amounts to \$830,600, and has increased \$77,000 during the past two years, and also been drawn upon for \$8,000 a year more for various educational purposes at the same time.

3. MICHIGAN.—July, 1845, from Gov. Barry's message—Funded debt, \$3,355,242 48; unfunded, \$721,934 90. Total indebtedness, \$4,077,177 38: Assets and resources of the State, 4,150,000; excess of resources, 72,822 62; shipping in 1819, 600 tons; in 1846, 26,000; exports in 1836, 475,000; 1840, 1,305,000; in 1846, 4,647,608.

4. IOWA.—Gov. McKnight, on retiring from office at the close of last year, gives the amount of the State debts to be \$27,791; resources to meet the debt \$8,167.

5. MARYLAND.—Total debt on 1st December, 1845, \$15,186,789 98.

"The present condition of things, in regard to the public debt of Maryland," says a writer in a late number of the Banker's Magazine, "is deeply to be deplored. It constitutes a crisis in her history that can never be remembered or referred to with pleasure. It is true that no sentiment of repudiation obtains footing here. Our people are, by far, too proud and too honorable for that. The chivalry of her sons could never bend to such humiliation. But, owing to her great undertakings, and the

incomplete condition of all of them, the burthen of debt contracted on their account, and which is, hereafter, to be distributed amongst them, now rests as an incubus upon the state. She, as the foster mother, has to bear the burthen, until her canals and railroads are completed. In the meantime, the calls upon the public treasury for the annual interest are very heavy; and the resources of the state, though greatly enhanced by new assessments and new rates of taxation, have been inadequate to meet them. A temporary suspension upon the interest payments has been the result; and a much deplored and injurious depression of the public stock has followed. This is alike disheartening to the creditor and mortifying to the debtor.

"But she is earnestly at work in attempts to fill the treasury; her great works are nearly approaching the mineral regions; it is now the settled policy of the country that the great fund of the public lands is to continue in a way of distribution, and Maryland will soon emerge from her difficulties with pure hands and an unsullied reputation."

6. INDIANA.—According to the late message of Gov. Whitcomb,

"The ordinary expenses of the Government, for the fiscal year ending on the 31st of October last, were \$69,136 59, being \$1,985 70 less than those of the preceding year. The ordinary expenses for 1847 are estimated by the auditor in his report, herewith submitted, at \$67,400. The value of taxable property returned for 1846, (estimating for the same counties,) is \$122,265,686, being an increase of \$3,395,435 over that of last year. A strong proof of the growing prosperity of the State, is afforded in the progressive diminution of the rate of delinquency for the last three years. The rate for 1843, was \$17 34 on the hundred; and for 1844, it was \$16 18 on the hundred; and for 1845, it was \$15 18 on the hundred."

7. KENTUCKY.—Total amount of taxable property by the last census, \$242,388,967, being 17,900,806 over that of 1845. The increase of revenue in same time being \$23,241; the present amount \$383,283. Average value of land per acre in the State, \$6 31.

8. OHIO.—We have already furnished in the present number an article upon this State, but the following extract from an article lately published in the Edinburgh Review, will be found of interest:

"The State of Ohio is the most wonderful of all transatlantic wonders in respect of rapid progress. It was a territory of forty thousand inhabitants in the year 1800; It is now a republic with two millions of citizens—as many as those of Venice or the United Provinces in their proudest days—with a profusion of agricultural wealth almost outrunning the need of available markets, and paying her dividends. And there is room for millions more; for the whole State is one rich tract of undulating plain, covered from end to end with the finest forest trees of America, and intersected by navigable waters. Its natural resources are practically unlimited, and yet Ohio forms only a small section of that vast region sloping from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi, which is almost every where equally productive and equally accessible."

According to the message of Governor Bartley, December 1846, the total debt of Ohio is,

Foreign,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$16,664,292	50
Domestic,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	765,136	12
School and Trust Fund,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,482,682	68
									\$19,212,111 30

9. PENNSYLVANIA.—The public debt of the State is thus distributed:

Stocks bearing 6 per cent interest,	-	-	-	-	-	\$1,752,335
" " 5 " "	-	-	-	-	-	34,786,932
" " 4½ " "	-	-	-	-	-	200,000
						\$36,739,267
In Relief notes in circulation,	-	-	-	-	-	1,258,572
In interest Certificates out,	-	-	-	-	\$1,689,022	
" " unclaimed,	-	-	-	-	28,392	

In interest on these till 1st August 1845, if funded,	171,389	2,888,803
Due domestic creditors,	-	99,750
Total public debt,		\$40,986,392

The whole of this debt was contracted—with the exception of a small sum of about 182,000, for the Eastern Penitentiary, the Insane Asylum, and Treasury purposes—for the construction or enlargement of public works, and to provide means, most improvidently, to pay interest. For two or three years before the failure of the State to pay her interest, it had only been paid by borrowing: a ruinous expedient, that was happily brought to a close when the State resumed its payments in February, 1845, out of funds derived from taxation and the tolls and receipts of the public works.

10. NEW YORK.—By the late message of Governor Young, it appears that the whole debt of the State, both direct and contingent, amounted at the close of the last fiscal year to 24,934,080.95; deducting contingent liabilities, it will be found to be 23,021,080.95. The aggregate of the debts contracted on account of all the canals from information derived from the same source, amounted at the same time to \$17,028,240.13.

11. MISSOURI.—Message of Gov Edwards:

"The revenue from taxes for the last two years amounted to \$330,752.60. The ordinary expenses of the State Government for the same period—including the expense of holding the State convention about 15,000—amounted to 247,274.78. This shows an ordinary revenue above ordinary expenses of 83,492.83. The bonus and dividends from the Bank for the same period were 29,817.27, and the interest on the State bonds outstanding, not including 35,000 due the Jackson and Palmyra branches, amounted to 42,000, for the same period. This makes an excess of interest on State bonds over the income from the Bank to the State of \$113,182.73."

12. ARKANSAS.—With regard to the aggregate debts of the State, the annual message of the Governor in December last remarks:

"Two banks were established upon the credit of the State soon after her admission into the Union; and on account of bonds issued to these banks, the State now stands solemnly pledged, besides her ordinary expenses, for the payment of the enormous sum of \$2,769,336, with the accumulated amount of interest thereon of 848,891, making the grand total of 3,617,227, with an annual accruing interest of \$164,660." One of the banks went into liquidation in 1842, and the Governor recommends that the other be wound up—a proposition, however, which it is thought will meet with but little favor in the Legislature."

13. LOUISIANA.—The Treasurer's Report, says Governor Johnson, in his message of January 1846:

"The Treasurer's Report will exhibit a general statement of the receipts and disbursements of the State government during the last fiscal year, ending on the 31st of December, and shows a balance in the Treasury on that day, of \$391,785.61 cts., which is an excess over the amount in the Treasury at the end of the preceding fiscal year, of \$166,785.61. The State debt proper, is \$1,293,000, a small portion of which falls due in June, 1848, and may be provided for by this or the next Legislature."

LOUISIANA.

1.—THE PARISHES OF LOUISIANA.

Concordia.—Area of the Parish 426,100 acres; in cultivation about 4,000, yielding in good seasons 25,000 bags of cotton. Many of the planters are now preparing to

turn their attention to sugar. We extract from a late number of the Concordia Intelligencer, that valuable paper, the following statement in relation to the Parish:

	1845.	1846.
Valuation of land and slaves, - - -	\$3,615,000	\$4,791,796
No. acres taxable land, - - -	178,301	185,060
“ of slaves, - - -	5,671	6,345
“ “ horses and mules, - - -	2,176	2,258
“ “ horned cattle, - - -	6,741	6,948
Bales of cotton raised, - - -	22,070	
Barrels of corn, - - -	321,900	
Money at interest, - - -		\$21,185
Retailers of goods, - - -	1	7
Taverns, - - -	3	3
Grog shops, - - -	2	3
4 wheel carriages, - - -	29	33
Professional men, - - -	17	17
	1845.	1846.
Amount of levee tax on land cultivated at 10 cents, and uncultivated at 5 cents per acre, -	\$10,677 05	\$11,000 00
Amount of State tax, - - -	8,066 19	8,887 74
“ Parish tax, - - -	8,066 19	8,887 74
Total of taxes in Concordia Parish, - - -	\$26,809 43	\$28,775 48

Ouachita Parish.—The table below is furnished by the Assessor:

No. of acres of land, first class, - - -	25,311
No. acres of taxable land, second class, - - -	30,282
No. acres taxable land, third class, - - -	57,085
Total No. acres subject to taxation, - - -	112,678
No. of town lots, - - -	150 00
Valuation of land, town lots, etc., - - -	421,490 00
Amount of tax on land and town lots, - - -	150 07
No. of slaves, 2,171, tax thereon, - - -	2,171 00
No. of horses and mules 545, tax 3 cents, - - -	16 25
No. horned cattle 2,526, tax 1 cent, - - -	25 26
Money at interest 2,220, tax 1-8, - - -	3 27
Retailers of goods 9, tax \$15, - - -	135 00
No. of taverns 1, tax \$10, - - -	10 00
No. of grogshop keepers 3, tax \$50, - - -	150 00
No. of 4 wheel carriages 20, tax \$5, - - -	100 00
No. of 2 wheel carriages 13, tax 2 50, - - -	32 00
No. lawyers and physicians 12, tax \$10, - - -	120 00
No. billiard tables 2, tax \$50, - - -	100 00
Total amount of taxes for the year 1846, - - -	\$3,413 44
No. children between 5 and 15 years old, - - -	396
No. barrels of corn—crop of 1845, - - -	80,218
No. bales cotton do. do. - - -	5,942
No. acres of cotton in cultivation 1846, - - -	7,498
No. do. corn do. do. - - -	5,790
Valuation real and personal property, - - -	\$1,824,487

2.—LOUISIANA SCHOOL FUND AND EXPENDITURE.

By the statement of Chas. Gayarre, Esq., Secretary of State, it is shown that there are 745,920 acres of land given to the State by the General Government, which, at 1 25 per acre, would give for school purposes, \$932,400, or if funded at 6 per cent., would give an annual revenue of \$60,000.

3.—LOUISIANA HISTORICAL DOCUMENTS.

According to the statement made by E. J. Forstall, Esq., to Gov. Roman, there

are some eight or ten thousand pages of manuscripts now in France, relating intimately to the early history of our State, copies of which, it is estimated, might be made for less than one thousand dollars. There are, also, papers at Madrid, which Mr. Prescott, in a letter to Mr. Gayarre, says can be obtained at a very inconsiderable expense. These papers, independently of their literary character in shedding light upon the early history of Louisiana, would, without question, have much value in a judicial point of view, in the determination of the intricate question of our land titles. In any case they should be brought to this country, and we see that a movement is now being made in the Legislature for the purpose. Let us hope that a reasonable liberality will be displayed.

The following is a list of authorities now to be consulted upon Louisiana, most of which we believe to be in the State Library: Charlevoix, Laval, Robin, Dulac, Baudry des Loziers, Bossu, Baron de Lanhoutan, Dumont, Le Page, Hennepin, La Hare, Tonti, Dupratz, Vergennes, Darby, Stoddard, Brackenridge, Martin, a volume of Collections by Mr. French, and the first two volumes of Gayarre.

AGRICULTURE OF THE SOUTH AND WEST.

I.—LOUISIANA AGRICULTURALISTS' AND MECHANICS' ASSOCIATION.

In devoting one portion of a periodical entitled *COMMERCIAL*, to the *Agricultural* and *Mechanic* interests, we are but obedient to those principles of social organization which unite in indissoluble bonds the leading branches of industry. Dependent one on the other, in the closest manner, a common decline or a common progress must await them all. To till our fields, the power of art, or of mechanism, is as necessary as that of nature. We tax and demand tribute of them both alike. But what are our fields, in all their abundance, if no wind receive the sails of our commerce, and distant men exchange not their abundance for ours. Said Sir Joseph Child, and said well, "land and trade are twins, and will ever wax and wane together. It cannot be ill with trade but lands will fall, nor ill with lands, but trade will feel it."

The "Louisiana Association of Agriculturalists and Mechanics" has been organized about four years, and held its annual meetings at Baton Rouge. At each of these meetings, there have been exhibited products of ingenuity and skill, of farming and of improved agriculture. Addresses have also been delivered and published: the first by Hon. T. W. McCaleb, the second by Hon. P. A. Rost, the third by T. B. Thorpe, Esq., and the last by J. D. B. DeBow, Esq. The Association has awarded premiums at each of its meetings, and the attendance, though not of the largest, has still been of the most respectable character. The spirit evinced at Baton Rouge and the vicinity, by its liberal and hospitable planters, has been of the best character, and deserving the commendation of the State at large. Henceforward the path of the Association must be with brighter auspices; and we commend it now to the fostering care of the Legislature of our State, to the planters from the Sabine to the Lafourche, to the artisans whose prosperity identifies itself with that of the soil. Let the influences extend wide and near, and the Louisiana Association will be speedily advanced to the high and influential position occupied by other similar bodies in different States of our confederacy.

Our object, however, was to speak of the meeting of the 4th and 5th of January last. Much preparation had been made by the Committee of Arrangements; and the Committee of Invitation succeeded in obtaining the presence of Mr. Clay "as a citizen deeply sympathising in every movement of a public character and as an agriculturalist long and practically engaged in the development of the resources of the soil." The following note was received by the Committee:

NEW ORLEANS, 30th December, 1846.

Gentlemen:—I have the honor to receive your obliging invitation to attend the approaching Annual Fair, at Baton Rouge, of the Agriculturalists' and Mechanics' Association, and take pleasure in expressing my acknowledgments for it.

Retaining a lively recollection of the satisfaction which I enjoyed on a former occasion, and sharing with the Association in their laudable desire to advance and promote the interesting objects of their institution, I accept the invitation with great pleasure, and hope that no obstacle will arise to prevent my attendance.

I am, with great respect, your obedient servant,

H. CLAY.

Messrs. F. D. CONRAD, J. D. B. DE BOW, etc.

By a unanimous vote the Hon. Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and the Hon. Zadoc Pratt, of New York, were elected honorary members. Of Mr. Pratt we shall publish a biographical sketch in our next number.

The Oration was delivered by J. D. B. DeBow, of New Orleans.

After the various proceedings, the following list of Officers were elected for the coming year:

PRESIDENT,

Col. WILLIAM HICKEY, of East Baton Rouge.

VICE-PRESIDENTS,

J. Cooper, East Baton Rouge; Valcour Aime, St. James; C. Adams, Iberville; D. J. Fluker, East Feliciana, B. Richardson, St. Tammany; Gen. E. Sparrow, Concordia; Gen. Joseph Walker, Rapides; D. Peck, Ouachita; Judge Campbell, Opelousas; J. J. Pocke, Natchitoches; P. A. Rost, German Coast; Verloin Degruy, Jefferson; B. M. Norman, New Orleans; W. Taylor, Point Coupee; Miles Taylor, Lafourche Interior.

Treasurer, Col. S. H. Henderson; Recording Secretary, T. B. Thorpe; Corresponding Secretary, T. B. R. Hatch.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE:—Col. S. Henderson, Ch'm; — McVey, James McCallop; Dr. Chambers; G. A. Pike; W. F. Tunnard; T. B. R. Hatch; C. G. McHatten; F. D. Conrad; Sosthene Allain; A. G. Carter, J. Kleinpetre.

2.—OUR SOUTHERN CLIMATE.

"But leaving out of the question" says Dr. Nott "cities, which I shall show have climates and diseases peculiar to themselves, and wholly different from the country which surrounds them, the climate of the gulf coast, including Florida, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana, is very imperfectly understood by persons at a distance. Although much has been written concerning the relation which exists between topography of southern countries and miasmatic fevers, all the laws and fine spun theories of book makers are put to flight by the facts every day witnessed in this region. Heat, moisture, animal and vegetable matter are said to be the elements which produce the diseases of the South, and yet the testimony in proof of the health of the banks of the lower portion of the Mississippi river, is too strong to be doubted—not only the river itself but the numerous bayous which meander through Louisiana. Here is a perfectly flat alluvial country covering several hundred miles, interspersed with interminable lakes, lagunes and jungles, and still we are informed by Dr. Cartwright, one of the most acute observers of the day, that this country is exempt from miasmatic disorders, and is extremely healthy. His assertion has been confirmed to me by hundreds of witnesses, and I know from my own observation that the population present a robust and healthy appearance. Why this is so, it is impossible to say; a country of this character on the Atlantic coast, would be almost uninhabitable by white population. The planters around Charleston, desert many places of more favorable aspect, in summer, and retreat to the city for health. The coast of Mississippi, Alabama and Florida, presents in many respects a different topography, and yet is considered a healthy country. In point of temperature this is one of the most agreeable climates in the United States, and the coast is dotted along the whole gulf with delightful watering places and summer residences, to which the population resort for health and pleasure; and yet whenever you build a town, even on a sandy desert, as at Pensacola, yellow fevers springs up and attacks strangers, while the natives are exempt. Whether it be an endemial position of bilious fever or not, yellow fever comes with concentrated population, usurps the field and reigns with undivided sway."

PUBLISHING BUSINESS.

1. *Histoire de la Louisiana, par Charles Gayarre*, vol. II.—We have just received the second volume of Mr. Gayarre's History, of which the first volume appeared and was noticed by us during the last year. We have had time only to glance over the present volume, and propose to give it a more detailed examination at a future period. It contains an account of some of the most interesting events that have ever occurred in Louisiana, being, in great part, taken up with the cession of the colony from France to Spain, and the circumstances attending this change. The narration is minute, but always engaging; and the quotations from contemporaneous documents are numerous, giving us a deeper insight into the character of the chief actors than could be gained by any other method. We promise ourselves much pleasure in an attentive perusal of the work, and hope in our next number to notice it more particularly.

2. *Browne's Whaling Cruise and History of the Whale Fishery*. New York, Harper & Brothers. New Orleans, J. C. Morgan.—This is a very valuable work, and contains many of the most interesting particulars in relation to our fisheries now an important arm of American Commerce and cradle of our navy. The work contains numerous details, and many thrilling passages in relation to this most dangerous and adventurous of all lives,—that of the whaleman,—it contains also full statistics of the fisheries and of their history from the earliest period.

3.—*Letters on Astronomy, Addressed to a Lady*. By Dennison Olmsted, LL. D. Yale College. New York, Harper & Brothers. New Orleans, J. B. Steel, 1847.—This is an elementary treatise on a beautiful branch of science, contributed in a clear and eloquent manner, by one who has enriched our country and our universities and schools, with some of the most attractive and practical works, upon the different departments of scientific knowledge.

4.—*The Flowers of Taste*.—

2.—*Hutton's Book of Nature*.—

3.—*Pictures of Every Day Life*.—By Mrs. Emma C. Embury.—These books are just issued from the press of Messrs. Harper & Brothers, of New York, and are to be found at the store of J. B. Steel. They are handsomely embellished and bound; the first contains flowers from Northcote, Æsop, La Fontaine, Cowper, Gay, and many others. The second, explains the geological, animal, vegetable and mineral kingdoms, solar system, etc.; the third presenting many moral and interesting tales.

5.—*Harper's Illuminated and Illustrated Shakspeare*, published in numbers.

Pictorial History of England, in parts, with 1200 engravings.

Leila, or the Siege of Grenada. By Bulwer.

These are also late from the press of Harper & Brothers. With the illustrated Shakspeare most of our readers are familiar. The illustrated history, however, is a new enterprise, deserving of all success, and it has reached the fifteenth number.

6.—*A Defence of Negro Slavery in the United States*. By Matthew Estis, of Mississippi. New Orleans, B. M. Norman.—This work discusses Slavery among the Jews, Slavery in the light of Christianity, African Slavery, Southern Slavery, Slave Trade, etc., etc., and is lately published from the pen of one familiar with the subject. Our space does not admit now of the elaborate notice which it is our intention to give it.

- 7.—Leonard, Scott & Co's. re-publication of
The London Quarterly Review.—
The Edinburgh Quarterly Review.—
The Westminster Quarterly Review.—
The North British Quarterly Review.—
Blackwood's Monthly Magazine.—

The above periodicals are re-printed in New York immediately on their arrival by the British steamers, in a beautiful clean type, on fine white paper, and are faithful copies of the original. The price at which they are re-published is but about one-third of that charged for the foreign editions, and while they are equally well got up they afford all that advantage to the American over the English reader.—New Orleans, J. C. Morgan

8.—*The Floral Year, embellished with Bouquets of Flowers drawn and colored from Nature. Each flower illustrated with a Poem.* By Mrs. Anna Peyre Dinnies.—This is one of the most elegant of the many beautiful annuals which, at the commencement of the new year burst in a swarm of loveliness on the literary world. It will render this attractive volume still more interesting to many of our readers to be informed that the talented lady who has bound the "Bouquets" which it contains in wreaths of poetry, is now a resident of our city. Flowers are themselves poetry, living, breathing, glowing poetry; and the man or woman who is not susceptible to their charms should be subject to every poet's ban.

Mrs. Dinnies, the sole author of this volume, for unlike the generality of annuals, it is the production of a single pen, is already well known to the American public as the writer of many beautiful verses which we will "not willingly let die." Her illustrations of the language and moral of flowers in the book before us will increase her merited reputation. Like many of her fair sisters who have "woke to extacy the living lyre," she is the poet of feeling and affection, rather than of fancy, imagination, or passion. And surely these are woman's peculiar province. Here is not, perhaps, "the poet's eye in a fine phrenzy rolling," but there is all of woman's gentleness, her susceptibility to beauty, her melting tenderness and her undying affections.

The "Bouquets" are beautifully grouped and colored, the binding of the book is singularly chaste and elegant; and altogether we know of no volume which the New Year has produced that could be better presented as a souvenir of friendship or love. It may be had of Mr. White, in Canal street.

9.—*The Bankers Magazine and State Financial Register.* Baltimore, J. Smith Homans. January number, 1847.—We are glad to perceive that this valuable work is gaining rapidly in public estimation and circulation. It contains the most important material upon the Banking System, State Finances, Currency, Life Insurance, etc., etc. Seven numbers have been published each manifesting an improvement on the last.

10.—*Our Exchanges*.—We have received Brownson's Quarterly Review for January, 1847, Boston; B. H. Greene; the Law Journal, Philadelphia, by J. J. Robbins; the Southern and Western Literary Messenger, for January, Richmond, Va., B. B. Minor, Editor and Proprietor; the North American Democratic, and Whig Reviews, J. C. Morgan, Agent; Simmond's London Colonial Magazine; Hunt's Merchant's Magazine; Skinner's Farmer's Library, for January; New Orleans Medical Journal; Charleston Medical Journal, etc.